Exploring the curriculum implementation experiences of TVET college lecturers

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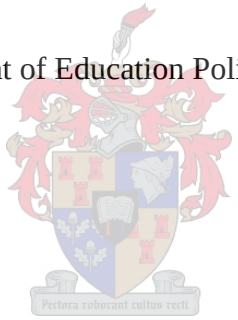

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Declaration

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ABSTRACT

Curriculum implementation at TVET colleges is not a simple process. College lecturers are implementing agents and have to receive, interpret, and make sense of the policy before they can implement it successfully. The college lecturers must know and understand what the national TVET curriculum entails and requires before the implementation thereof. Therefore, there must be consultation and cooperation between the college lecturers as implementing agents and the department as policymakers. Implementation of the college curriculum also takes place at a time that staff are grappling with many challenges, such as changing organisational structures, administration requirements and other practical challenges

Methodologically, the thesis is based on a qualitative study that focused on the curriculum experiences of selected TVET college lecturers at one College. Conceptually, the study uses a combination of Elmore's (1979-1980) approach policy implementation and Matland's (1995) 'policy ambiguity' model to interpret the lecturers' curriculum implementation experiences.

The study focused on how lecturers deal with college and curriculum expectations and how this impacts their curriculum implementation at the college. It also considers how they receive and interpret the curriculum and how they position themselves to interact with various dimensions, such as administration of the curriculum, subject knowledge, pedagogy in the classroom and assessment. The research shows that the curriculum implementation practices of college lecturers are different and diverse, considering the pre-packaged curriculum that must be implemented and the lack of clear directives in how to implement it.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Motivation and background for my study

Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges in South Africa have experienced major changes in the past few years since the merging process between former technical colleges and education and training centres in 2002. As stated by Warrington (2016) educational policy reform, such as in the TVET sector can lead to complicated processes with unplanned results. Neyere (1974) argues that education reform must be the starting point towards meaningful change. Reform in the TVET colleges has been well documented by Gewer (2001), Akoojee, Gewer and McGrath (2005), Wedekind (2008), Papier (2009), Towani (2010) and Buthelezi (2016). The reforms that took place had a significant impact on the TVET landscape.

The TVET college sector is the main provider and supplier of the skills needed in the country. TVET colleges are currently a national priority in education and training in South Africa. It is generally recognised by the state, industry, and trade unions that the country has not yet fulfilled the need to educate and train enough skilled people to meet the needs in technical areas. The country is facing a great need for training and development of skills, and knowledge for social and economic development. Not only in South Africa, but globally, there is a focus on preparing students for the world of work, and this needs radical rethinking in modern, changing economies.

TVET college lecturers in South Africa vary with regards to their qualifications, educational background and experiences (DHET, 2015). Many TVET college lecturers have qualifications unrelated to the sector and many of them are not professionally qualified teachers and therefore not registered at the South African Council for Educators (SACE), which is a requirement to be appointed as a DHET employee. The older lecturers in the system, who worked as artisans, trainers and facilitators, have valuable industry and workplace experience. The new younger lecturers have academic qualifications such as degrees or diplomas, while most of them do not professional work experience. In 2013 the government approved a framework for new qualifications that aims to assist lecturers to become qualified educators over and above their work-orientated qualifications. In response to this Warrington (2016), argues that TVET colleges may experience a decline in their connections with the industry (workplace) when colleges and

their lecturers increase their focus on education rather than on experience in the world of work. Wedekind (2016) explains that lecturers who entered the college system as artisans, trainers and facilitators and who do not wish to qualify as TVET college lecturers may leave the sector which will increase the flow of skills out of the sector.

My research focus for the study on which this thesis is based, aimed to understand the college lecturers' training and professional backgrounds and how this impacted their curriculum implementation practices. In my experience, most lecturers who enter the college environment are former teachers and/or industry workers. Some lecturers have no formal training or qualifications as teachers or prior teaching experience which makes the transition even more difficult. It is expected that former schoolteachers, for example, who become college lecturers, are able to switch fairly easily into lecturing adults at a college level, because of the assumption that as experienced schoolteachers they already have the professional background and the necessary training and teaching skills. These lecturers then need to use their own professional backgrounds to switch from being a teacher at a school to a lecturer at a college. The transition to becoming a college lecturer is, however, generally burdened with uncertainty and at times confusion. This concern drove me to propose this research study that focuses on how the lecturers receive and interpret the curriculum and how they position themselves to lecture at a college with regards to various dimensions.

My main research question and three sub-questions were:

1.1. Main research question

How and on what basis do lecturers at a technical and vocational education and training college implement the curriculum?

Sub-questions

1. How do the lecturers' background and professional training and preparedness position them for lecturing at the TVET college?

2. How do the TVET college conditions position and influence the lecturers' curriculum implementation?
3. How do the lecturers go about development practices and strategies for curriculum implementation?

1.3. Research aims and objectives

In this thesis, I aim to:

1. investigate the training and professional backgrounds of six lecturers at one TVET college.
2. understand how their training and professional backgrounds impacted their curriculum implementation practices at the college.
3. understand how these lecturers received, perceived and interpreted the curriculum in order to implement it in the classroom.
4. determine how they interacted with various dimensions, for example, administration of curriculum, curriculum reception, knowledge of the subject, pedagogy and assessment to reposition themselves for their curriculum implementation practices in the classroom.

1.4. The purpose of my study

The purpose of the study was to acquire an understanding of the TVET college lecturers' training and professional backgrounds and how those impacted their reception and interpretation of the curriculum to implement it successfully at the college, despite TVET college conditions, challenges and expectations.

1.5 Methodology

The methodological approach that I followed is a qualitative study based on the interpretive theoretical approach. This qualitative-interpretive research method is discussed in chapter three. The study is based on Marshall and Rossman's (1999: 46) view that qualitative research explores complex situations and processes that attempt to determine the complexity of human practices, in this case, the curriculum implementation practices of college lecturers.

For the purpose of my study, I selected six college lecturers who lecture at one Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) college in the northern suburbs of Cape Town in the Western Cape. I used a questionnaire to investigate their training and professional backgrounds as well as interviews and focus group discussions to understand how their professional backgrounds prepare them to lecture at a college. The interviews consisted of open-ended questions which highlight the relation between their reception and interpretation of the curriculum and their curriculum implementation practices.

1.6. Layout of my study

This study is presented in six chapters. In chapter one, the motivation and background of my study are rendered. Chapter two contains the literature study and the theoretical framework that illuminates my study. Chapter three presents the research methodology and methods that I used to collect the data for this study. Chapter four is a detailed presentation of the data based on the research questions which are divided into three themes. Chapter five offers an analysis of the data that were collected during my research. Chapter six is the summary and conclusion of my study and recommendation for further research studies.

1.7. Summary

This chapter provided the study's research questions and objectives as well as a brief explanation of the methodology and methods that I used. I also gave the layout of the six chapters of the thesis. The next chapter presents the literature and theoretical framework of the thesis.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical framework

In this chapter, I focus on four themes gleaned from the extant literature that relates to my main research question, "How and on what basis do lecturers at a technical and vocational education and training college implement the curriculum?"

2.1. Literature Review

My first theme focuses on policy and policy reform in the TVET college sector, concentrating on the nature of change, policy reform and transformation. The second theme focuses on TVET lecturers and how they are positioned in the sector with regards to their status, qualifications, challenges and gaps that may lead to inconsistent positioning and how they interpret various dimensions of the curriculum such as assessment practices, administration, subject knowledge and assessment practice. This discussion takes into consideration the TVET college lecturer's professional background and unique identities. The third theme discusses the TVET curriculum, teaching and learning and concentrates on how TVET lecturers implement the curriculum in the classroom.

2.1.1. TVET College Policy and Policy Change and Reform

This section discusses policy reform with a specific emphasis on the TVET sector in South Africa. An attempt will be made to understand what policy is, how it is made and implemented. I shed some light on the impact of those policy reforms on the TVET college sector in the country.

Policy for the TVET curriculum is a form of decision making whereby different opinions and views of policy makers, who have certain visions and goals in mind, are brought together after having been discussed (Dudley & Vidovich, 1995). The final decisions that are taken by these policy makers and which are written into policies are intended for the benefit of society. A challenge within the policy-making process is that the outcomes of policy may be contested among different interested groups. This may also have an impact on how the policy is implemented and enacted, which is sometimes different from how it was planned.

Government is the lawful decision-maker in South Africa in the process of policy-making (De Clercq, 1997: 27-46). Government policy is communicated in various ways, such as ministerial documentation, departmental circulars, policy papers, ministerial statements, green and white papers.

Within the sphere of education, policies give direction, set goals and establish practice (Connolly, 1994). In South Africa, the current Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for schools and the Internal Continuous Assessment (ICASS) Guidelines for the TVET colleges have been described as a policy that narrowly defines how teaching should take place in schools and colleges (Fataar, 2015). CAPS (for schools) and the ICASS guidelines (for TVET colleges) as curriculum documents in schools and colleges, provide specific curriculum guidelines and timeframes for implementation.

Ball (1994: 19) states that policies do not normally tell you what to do, they create a playing field of circumstances in which the range of options available are narrowed to reach particular goals or outcomes that are set. Policy enactment can be seen as a lively and non-linear process within the entire policy-making practice. Fataar (2015) argues that the policy becomes recast, rebuilt and tailor-made by the school and college actors to fit specific circumstances.

Policy implementation is a complex process that needs to be tackled in phases. Once policy has been formulated, it needs to be implemented. It is not a one-size-fits-all process, it first needs to be adapted to suit and fit the circumstances of the college or institution in order to be implemented to suit the needs and culture of the institution.

Ball (1994: 164) explains that policy cannot just be implemented because the worlds of practice are complicated and unsteady. Policy implementation is not a straightforward action and the intended policy is often reworked and enacted differently in diverse school and college contexts. Policy implementation is understood as the process whereby government's decisions are put into practice (Berman, 1978: 155–184). Ball (1994) explains that most policies do not just fit into all school and college contexts, therefore policy enactment is rarely a straightforward phase-in process, rather it can be messy and incoherent at times. Once policy has been finalised by the

government, it lands in different schools and colleges in different social contexts. Given the diversity of these contexts in South Africa, educational policy is often re-formed and altered, suitably amended, modified and fine-tuned, in order for it to consider the school context, the learners/students enrolled at the school/college, and the teachers/lecturers who teach at the institution.

Viewing policy implementation through the lens of policy enactment emphasises how the policy becomes renovated and reworked during the implementation phase in schools. Policy enactment refers to a more collective and collaborative process that requires interaction and inter-connection between the policy makers, policy text, policy actors and the objects. Policy implementation, therefore, is not a once-off process, it is always a process of 'becoming', as things need to change from the inside-out (and vice versa) and this takes a period of time (Ball, 1994).

Contextual dimensions of TVET colleges, for example, histories, physical resources, buildings, staffing profiles, leadership experience, budgetary situations, education, students from diverse backgrounds or students with special needs, language preferences and barriers, disabilities, social and economic deficits, all play a role in educational policy enactment. As a result, policies are re-formulated and renovated to fit the TVET college in different locations and settings. It is, however, expected that colleges, irrespective of their location and other dynamics, must be accountable for how they go about implementing policy.

After the political transformation in South Africa in 1994, it was decided that the higher education and training system should be reformed to address the inequalities of the past. The result of the restructuring of the South African Higher Education and Training system was that mergers were mandated across the sector. The Department of Education made space for the merging of the technical vocational colleges to ensure that inadequate resources are sufficiently utilised. In 2002 the Technical and Vocational Education and Training Colleges were established in terms of the Further Education and Training (FET) Act 98 of 1998. One hundred and fifty-two previous TVET state-owned and state-aided colleges formed part of the merger process and were

merged into fifty Technical and Vocational Education and Training colleges across the nine provinces of South Africa.

After the merging process, the intent was to develop a new curriculum that would prepare students for the world of work. The Department of Education stated that: "The curriculum is at the heart of the education and training system. It is imperative that the curriculum be restructured to reflect the values and principles of our new democratic society" (DoE, 1997:1). The National Certificate (Vocational) NC(V) programmes were developed to address the needs of the country's economy and to position the colleges strategically to supply skills for labour demand in industry. These NC(V) programmes would provide an alternative pathway for learners who completed grade nine in a school and want to pursue a vocational pathway as a career. The intent was also that the NC(V) programmes would replace the ministerial National N-diploma courses. NC(V) and National N-diploma programmes are learning programmes offered by the Department of Higher Education and Training at the technical vocational education and training (TVET) colleges. The curricula offered at TVET colleges in South Africa are the:

1. National Certificate (Vocational) – NC(V) – National Qualifications Framework (NQF) level 2, level 3 and level 4. The NC(V) programmes levels two to four are equivalent to a National Senior Certificate at matric level - which also pitches on level four of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) of South Africa.
2. Business and Utility Studies N4-N6: 18 months' theory training at the college (NQF level 5) and 18 months in-service training at the workplace: NQF level 6; and
3. Engineering Studies N1-N6: 24 - 24 months' theory training at the college and 24 months' in-service training at the workplace – NQF level 6.

The implementation of the NC(V) curriculum brought challenges such as changes in the timetabling of courses, staffing requirements and new administration functions. These programmes also placed a stronger focus on the integration of the knowledge and practical components - which have to be integrated through workshop practices. These curriculum requirements also brought other serious challenges to colleges that did not have a staff

complement to address these requirements due to staff not being suitably qualified (Cosser, Kraak & Winnaar, 2011: 53-57).

The 2010 FET Colleges Audit (Cosser, Kraak & Winnaar, 2011: 53-57), has shown that 41% of lecturers' qualifications are not above level 5 on the NQF and 57% of college staff have less than a degree or higher diploma, due to not having a formal qualification as a teacher. In other words, many lecturers without a Post Graduate Certificate in Education or a National Education Certificate are not able to cope with the demands of the subject content (Cosser, Kraak & Winnaar, 2011). Staff training and development has become one of the most important challenges of implementing the new curricula in the TVET colleges.

In South Africa, education and the economy have specific challenges. These challenges originated in the apartheid system. On the one side there is the challenge of high levels of unemployment (Marais 2011; Mohamed 2010) and on the other side the challenge of a skills shortage. Mohamed (2010: 283, 256, 281) describes our economic situation as "jobless growth – with capital rather than labour-intensive forms of economic growth being the order of the day". This stems from the dilemma of employers that they cannot find people with adequate skills for a specific job. Policymakers question the appropriateness of school subjects and traditional disciplinary bases for curricula in schools and colleges where new programmes and courses are often developed without basing them on a traditional disciplinary base as was the case historically. The traditional disciplinary basis for curricula in schools and colleges is a model of a curriculum where content is separated into specific subjects or disciplines, for example, language, science, mathematics, and geography. The concept 'discipline- or subject-based' refers to the entire collection of distinctive subjects in a specific field of study, e.g., mathematics and physics and in the more recent areas of study such as visual arts education. This model's instructional emphasis is on specific, current, and factual information and skills as it is presented from the subject or discipline expert by teachers and lecturers who specialize in the content knowledge of the specific subject or discipline (Kridel, 2010).

One way of trying to make sense of the relationship between education and jobs is through the concept called transition studies which are described by Sweet (2001: 58-63) as the "connection

between an educational programme and its destinations, mediated by a set of institutional arrangements that include qualification systems, curriculum content, labour market arrangements and information and advice systems". In other words, transition studies focus on the pathway from education to work and the so-called, 'micro transitions' where the focus is on transitions between unemployment to employment, full-time work to part-time work and permanent work to casual work.

Gewer (2010: 133-151) explains four main findings in a study on the impact on the transition of young people from college to work. Firstly, because of socio-economic conditions and the role of the family as important factors when children make educational choices, working-class learners often postpone their studies due to a lack of affordability and accessibility of colleges. In the first instance, Gewer (2010) mentions that as the roles of the family and socio-economic climate are essential. Parents regulate and control educational choices for their children. Secondly, learners have a perception that the TVET colleges do not equip them sufficiently for the world of work, but rather provide them with simulated tuition in the classroom. In the third instance, learners were of opinion that the TVET colleges do not provide them with actual work in workplaces. Fourthly, learners experienced that there are limited partnerships and linkages with employers, and they had to rely on personal contacts of family and friends and newspaper advertisements to find employment, which in the end does not guarantee employment (Gewer, 2010; RSA, 2013b: 321). Not all students are able to find employment for themselves and are dependent on the college for assistance in this regard, e.g., finding funding for stipends for students to do their internships at workplaces in industry.

Over the last eighteen years (since the merging of colleges in 2002) Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in South Africa has undergone major institutional, structural, and curricular changes. Research revealed the unplanned effects of educational transformation in this reform period. Findings exposed a lack of compatibility between curricular reforms, student type and lecturers' compliance to the reform. Research further revealed unintended consequences of educational change and the existence of tensions between opinions, ideas and competencies of lecturers and students with the national vision of skills development for the country's economic benefits. TVET head-count student enrolments increased from 345 566 in 2010 to 650 000 in

2013 to one million in 2015. The Department of Higher Education and Training predicted 2.5 million headcount of student enrolments by 2030 (DHET, 2013).

In conclusion, policy change and reform in the TVET college sector across the world firstly highlights institutional pressures and intense restructuring across all fifty TVET colleges in South Africa. Secondly, the outcomes of these pressures and restructuring, for example, the mergers, the increase of work through the introduction of performance indicators and targets, and pressures for institutions to self-fund a significant portion of their cost structure have been extraordinarily complex and bewildering (Barnes, Matka & Sullivan, 2003: 265-284).

2.1.2. TVET College Curriculum, Teaching and Learning

Teaching, learning, and curriculum in the TVET college sector perform important functions relating to occupational and vocational practices in preparing the youth of South Africa for the world of work. It aims at developing practical workplace-related skills, mastering theoretical knowledge as stipulated in the curriculum, and intends to train for employability, either formal employment or self-employment.

Curriculum is concerned with knowledge that is collected and structured for education under historical, cultural and social conditions. The collected knowledge focuses on the legitimacy of the content, how the content is delivered within diverse cultures and which educational identities and competence can be associated with delivering the content. Questions that were raised on curriculum as content, for example are, whether the content is worth knowing and what kind of knowing is necessary as well as if the pedagogical practices stimulated learning (Forsberg, 2007). Forsberg, Englund and Sundberg (2012) agree that knowledge is always an issue. They argue that knowledge always is ‘someone’s knowledge’ because of ‘whose knowledge’ is in use. Lundgren (1979) explains that educational knowledge is based on codes that transfer connotation (meaning) and that curriculum is the code that conveys the connotation (meaning) that can be emancipated, replicated, enclosed and eliminated.

To understand the exact meaning of curriculum in the Technical and Vocational Education and Training College, it is important to explore the conception and expansion of the fundamental

components of the intended structure and framework, of which two basic components are curriculum design and development. Du Toit (2011) and Pieters (2015) state there is not a general understanding of what the concept "curriculum" involves. Academics at higher and post-school education institutions, frequently find different ways to view, interpret and implement curricula in a similar field of study. Barnett and Coate (2003) explain the concept curriculum as an "organised set of educational experiences" and pedagogy as the "act of teaching brought about by the curriculum". Koen (2011), Diamond (2008) and Taba (1962) describe curriculum as a "plan of action that organises learning activities". Marsh and Willis (1999); Mckenney, Nieveen and Van den Akker (2006: 151-158) emphasise the complex practices, collaborations, aspects and performers accompanying the two domains of formation (namely planning and preparation) and education (e.g. learning and knowledge). Zais (1976: 4) sees curriculum as involving two practices, namely to indicate a plan for the education of learners, and to identify a field of study. Pinar (2003) says that views on and assumptions of education are all related to curriculum as the centre of all education. Ross (2000) explains curriculum in modern-day education as what needs to be learnt and what is worth knowing. Carl (2012) says curriculum is often seen as preparing someone for life, where an individual's learning journey entails a start, a learning route and a finishing point of achievement. Parkey and Hass (2000: 3) say that curriculum "deals with what is worth experiencing, doing and being". Pinar (2010) explains curriculum as a noun with the verb, 'currere' and underlines the experience of the journey in an educational context. Moving away from the understanding curriculum as a noun, a given course, to a process ('currere') of running is an important orienting move which engages with curriculum as an active practice.

From the preceding discussion, it is clear that the concept, 'curriculum' does not have one meaning. It appears that 'curriculum' is a multidimensional concept which is every so often undefinable (Bitzer, 2009; van den Akker, 2003). Curriculum as a field of study is defined by the range of subject matter with which it is concerned and the procedures of inquiry and practice that it follows. Stark and Lattuca (1997) indicate curriculum as a strategy for students' academic development positioned in a historical, social and political framework. Curriculum can be defined as a programme of activities designed for students to achieve a given set of educational goals and objectives. The three main data sources in determining curriculum objectives are

information about the needs and interests of learners, social circumstances and problem students. These are likely to confront the nature of the subject matter and suitable methods of learning. Students are not all the same and therefore methods of learning cannot be the same. To address and respond to the diversity of students, the curriculum should be "dynamic and responsive" (Wertsch, 2007). Johnson (1967) echoes this by saying a curriculum can consist of "a structured series of intended learning outcomes, with all else being instruction". Kerr (1968) indicates that the concept "curriculum" resides in learning as planned and guided by an institution, irrespective if it is fulfilled individually or as a group. Kerr also poses that a curriculum contains four interconnected parts, namely curriculum objectives, knowledge, learning experiences and curriculum evaluation. Grumet's view of curriculum corresponds with Kerr's view that a curriculum contains four parts. However, he names the four parts slightly differently in posing aims or objectives, content or subject matter, methods or procedures and evaluation or assessment. Eisner (1985) highlights three parts of curriculum, namely the explicit, the implicit and the null curriculum. Grundy (1987) also distinguishes between only three parts of a curriculum and explains them as the "product" (e.g. a document used to teach) and it is also known as the official content intended to be taught and is considered as a tangible presentation of the curriculum. The second part he explains as "practice" and is the part taking place in the classroom and is also known as the experience of the implemented curriculum content. The third part Grundy explains is the "praxis" which is also seen as the "curriculum as social construct" whereby the curriculum is assembled or constructed by those who are involved in it.

Zais (1976), Visser-Voerman, Gustafson and Plomp (1999) and Gustafson and Branch (2002) support each other's view that curriculum design is the arrangement of the components of a curriculum, namely aims, goals, objectives, subject matter of content, learning activities and evaluation. All these elements are brought together as a unified curriculum which forms the curriculum design. Grundy (1987) says that the way in which different academics and non-academics perceive the form of a curriculum will determine the curriculum's design.

There are various ways in which a curriculum can be designed. Doll (1974: 23-70) reasons that there are three main typical curriculum designs. The first curriculum design is constructed by subjects, disciplines, and broad fields, where two or more subjects are bundled as an example of

a broad-field curriculum design. The second curriculum design is based on and around students and the different types are called student-centred and experience-centred curriculum designs. The third curriculum design can be based on social matters such as poverty, social justice, health-related matters, and real-life scenarios. Carl (2012) relates curriculum design to decision-making whereby content is incorporated and how the content must be presented and evaluated.

Barnett and Coate (2005: 27-39) argue that students should be involved in curriculum design as "knowers, actors and human beings", however together with Carl (2012), they believe that there is no fixed recipe for successful curriculum design as curricula are changing to adapt to a changing world to stay relevant and current. Therefore, curriculum design should be a flexible process.

Oliva (1998: 23) reminds us of the many other factors that influence the process of curriculum design such as beliefs and attitudes (philosophy), sociology, history, subject area, feelings, and mindsets (psychology) and technology. In a UNESCO report (2008) the emphasis was put on the prominence of technology, mentioning information technology specifically as a force that influences the curriculum. The report echoes the challenges of lecturers and students in a progressively multifaceted, information-rich and knowledge-based society. The report also states that technology should be a methodology with a means to an end and not only a teaching tool or teaching aid. Lecturers need to realise the here and now when developing the curriculum on the micro-level as many factors influence the curriculum, for example learning styles of students and the fact that each student learns differently. Curriculum development will be influenced by factors such as how lecturers and curriculum developers take note of the concept of "learning" and how they are influenced by the design of learning activities and learning content in the development of the learning environment.

Oliva (1998: 23), Van Rooy (1996: 107) and Kessels (1999) explain curriculum development as a logical and realistic action and an inclusive term that incorporates curriculum planning, design, implementation and evaluation. Curriculum development stages range from education planning at the macro-level to lesson preparation at the micro-level and can be divided into four phases: design, dissemination, implementation and evaluation (Carl, 1995).

Carl (1995: 51-52) and van Rooy (1996: 107) say that curriculum development can be accomplished at three levels: the macro-level, which is characterised when the general and all-inclusive educational policies are scrutinized; the meso-level, where the responsibilities of curriculum development are given to authorities, senior administrators and experts at departmental, provincial and regional levels, which is mainly used for subject curricula and the micro-level, where aspects of the curriculum are considered with regard to individual didactic situations, for example planning a work scheme for daily lessons or a lesson presentation and this takes place at the institutional level.. Marsh (2004) and Van den Akker (2003: 151-158) state that curriculum challenges occur normally from gaps and inconsistencies between the afore-mentioned levels.

Curriculum and pedagogy in the vocational classroom stand on three pillars: (1) technical knowledge or curriculum knowledge, (2) pedagogical skills or practical application to impart the theoretical and practical knowledge in the educational context in or out of the classroom and (3) workplace or industry experience. These three pillars ensure quality teaching and learning in the training environment which can be a classroom, simulated enterprise, workplace or workshop at a technical vocational education and training college (Lucas, 2012).

The following are factors distinguishing curriculum and pedagogy in vocational education from other formal, post-school and professional education (for example at universities) and which inform us what it means to be a technical and vocational teacher:

1. The TVET educator often has a dual identity: that of a professional educator, as well as that of a business or industry professional.
2. The curricula in the TVET sector integrate theory and practice and teaching. It therefore should mirror a curriculum that ‘faces both ways’ (Barnett, 2006) – the lecturer thus trains the students in terms of curriculum knowledge as well as workplace-based competencies.
3. The TVET educator fully integrates the teaching of the ‘language’ of the subject or field in all the component parts of the programmes undertaken by the students.

4. Vocational education and training are often taught through practical problem-solving in terms of real-world situations – which requires a blend of teaching methods involving hands-on, practical, experiential and application of theory strategies (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton, 2012).
5. TVET educators understand that 'work is the curriculum' (Boud, et al., 2001) and that they should therefore prepare their students for work by engaging with business or industry, both to maintain their own professional knowledge of the field and to offer more responsive programmes.
6. Understanding the TVET context is central to success in teaching, including understanding the student context (Lucas, et al., 2012).
7. Vocational curriculum and pedagogy focus on 'striking a balance between the conceptual and practical'; which involves 'creativity, critical thinking, communication and collaboration' with the purpose to stimulate 'performance-related' and ethical character traits in students, that will ensure that they become 'active and responsible citizens' (Lucas, et al., 2012). In this regard, Gamble (2009: 3) notes that the vocational curriculum needs a mix of different forms of knowledge, drawn from both non-empirical (conceptual) and empirical (situated in everyday life) domains, for the curriculum to which enables both "knowledge progression and occupational progression".
8. In this regard, no discussion of a vocational curriculum would be complete unless reference is made to 'tacit knowledge' – namely the 'implicit knowledge that is not clearly expressed' in vocational knowledge, but which is central to pedagogical transmission practices in a vocational curriculum (Gamble, 2004: 1, 2). Crucially, for vocational curriculum approaches, 'tacit knowledge' is a 'social practice-driven innovation' (Gamble, 2004: 3), where 'the tacit knowledge accrued by the long practice of craft and instrumental practice, of "doing the job", can come to suggest new ways of doing things (Muller, 2000: 31). No professional TVET teaching curriculum, intending to enact a vocational curriculum (including its concomitant workplace-learning practices and the relationships formed through workplace-practice), can therefore ignore the tacit dimension of learning through work.

The TVET college curriculum is the core of teaching and learning in the TVET college sector in the country. Curriculum change and reform are important to adhere to the needs and requirements of industry and the world of work. TVET colleges in South Africa continue to be in a state of unsteadiness as they are continuously bombarded with ongoing challenges. One such challenge was the implementation of the NC(V) curriculum (DOE,2009). Another challenge is the implementation of occupational qualifications without a stable and proper functional funding structure in collaboration with both the Sectoral Education and Training Authorities (SETAS) and industry. In the light of existing out-of-date, incomplete, or undeveloped curricula for qualifications, the TVET college lecturer faces many challenges as they have to deliver academic work in an ever-changing environment with unavailable or limited resources, funding and facilities. TVET colleges cater for diverse types of students and their individual educational and training demands - those who require preparation to enter the workplace; those who want to pursue self-employment; those who aspire to obtain a university degree; those who need reskilling or upskilling and those who need to start a new career pathway due to personal reasons. Irrespective of the reason and motivation for a student's inspiration to study, TVET colleges have various course offerings that range from full qualifications that could take several years to complete to short courses stretching over as little as only one week (DHET, 2013: 4). This brings me to the next theme of discussion, which is the TVET college lecturer, their backgrounds and unique identities.

2.1.3. TVET College Lecturers' Backgrounds and Unique Identities

The TVET college lecturers are a diverse group of individuals coming from industry or the school teaching sector. The focus in this section is on the TVET lecturers' professional backgrounds, who they are, what type of skill sets they have and how they utilise their status to position themselves in the workplace.

There is limited information acknowledged with regards to the biographical backgrounds of TVET college lecturers, their inspiration for selecting the option to lecture, their lecturing approaches and their career paths. The TVET college sector is a 'black box' as far as the TVET college lecturer is concerned. Towani (2012), Buthelezi (2015) and Msibi (2016) studied the experiences of college lecturers putting the new NC(V) curriculum into practice. Towani (2012)

shows that lecturers had been inadequately equipped to implement the curriculum and that there was very little consultation and buy-in for the implementation and delivery thereof. Papier (2010) pointed out that the formal offering of programmes for TVET college lecturers is inadequate. She also stressed the fact that there is almost no literature on TVET college lecturers' education. Papier (2011: 102) contends that "there is a need for qualitative enquiry that attempts to understand the local impacts of the changing world of vocational education (both within and beyond South Africa). Papier explains that TVET college lecturers are positioned towards educational and workplace needs. This creates friction in terms of the TVET college lecturer's identity. Papier explains that

> Vocational teachers are … required to span these two spheres (work and education) and embrace a dual identity that combines liberal education and economic enterprise, placing them in a state of tension between 'industry expert' and 'expert educator' identities, even though they are dislocated from both traditional sites – the industrial workplace and the traditional school. (Papier, 2011:106)

Shorne (2008) outlines the lives and careers of TAFE lecturers in Australia, showing in what way casualisation (casual work) of the college labour force has caused a shift in lecturers' identities away from viewing teaching as a profession and searching for job security outside of education. Gamble (2003a; 2004a; 2004b) tackled the matters on a theoretical level, in terms of understanding the complexity of trades and technical knowledge and in terms of curriculum approachability (Gamble, 2003b). Gamble (2003a; 2003b; 2004a; 2004b) investigated the knowledge required to be employed or self-employment, the conflicts between theory and practice in the curriculum and also tackles the difficulty of language and learning in a country where the majority of people learn in a language that is not their home language. Gamble also points out the contradiction of a too strong focus on employability which she suggests will "dumb down" the curriculum.

The White Paper (MHET, 2013) highlights the necessity to grow the TVET college system in South Africa. One of the main challenges in taking up is that little is known about what happens inside the classroom or workshop (Papier, 2011; Wedekind, 2008). Inadequate consideration has

been given to the "person who gently closes the classroom door and performs the teaching act – the person who puts into place the end-effects of so many policies' (Hattie, 2003: 3). Another challenge that is faced by researchers in the field of technical and vocational education and training is that there is not a sophisticated "language of description" for vocational teaching consisting of, or belonging to an English-speaking population - especially in a country where two or more languages are spoken (Papier, 2009; Young, 2006: 153-160).

Grollmann and Rauner (2007) mention some basic professional profiles of TVET college lecturers. These basic professional profiles of the TVET college lecturers are:

- those working in formal college settings and providing education in the vocational courses;
- those working in a college setting with a high degree of autonomy;
- lecturers acting as tutors who integrate education and training into their jobs by training full-time trainees or apprentices;
- those working as instructors in the labour market training institutions supported by the state and public authorities with a strong focus on social inclusion and basic occupational competencies; and
- lecturers acting as facilitators in employers' organisations, such as chambers of commerce.

The vocational teachers' change-over from school to college/work is complex. (Rauner, 1999: 251-276) and Brzinsky-Fay (2007: 409-422) distinguish between four models in vocational education: the apprenticeship model, the school-based vocational education model, the direct transition from education to work model and the model where education takes place over a longer period until full integration into work has been achieved.

King Rice (2003: 196) and Rivkin et al. (2005: 73) argue that "the professional skills and competencies of teachers constitute a crucial factor in determining the success of the teaching processes that they enact". Lynch (1998: 43-65) states that the lever to improve the quality of vocational teachers is by raising the level of qualifications needed for education and training in technical and vocational education. She explains two models in which the recruitment of

vocational teachers can take place to better the outcomes of teaching and learning in the classroom: firstly, on the basis where the recruitment is based on a certain level of qualification(s) needed and secondly, on the basis called “alternative recruitment”, taking into consideration that the vocational lecturers also need to bring industry experience to the classroom.

Lecturers must have a relevant qualification to be employed at a TVET college. Vocational lecturers who have prior occupational experiences can be employed in a TVET college. The absence of a formal teaching qualification raises the question of whether the lecturer with (only) occupational experience is properly prepared to teach their subject content. Looking into a socio-cultural understanding of TVET lecturer identity, an article by Köpsén (2014: 194-211) addresses the unique identity of the vocational lecturer and how, through boundary-crossing, they construct a new form of practice in teaching by combining the experience in their occupation with training in vocational teaching. Köpsén illustrates how “teachers who manage to balance their teacher identities with their occupational identities by maintaining their participation in the different communities seem to be the best prepared to teach their vocational subjects”.

The concept of lecturers’ identity construction is based on an emphasis on identity as being socially constructed, multiple, fluid and always in process. Lecturers are individuals and therefore include their lecturer identity as a layer to their individual identity and negotiate specific identifications related to teaching and school. These individuals are thus engaged in becoming specific lecturers through a process whereby they make sense of themselves in this capacity. These identities can be described as “the way teachers [lecturers] feel about themselves professionally, emotionally and politically given the conditions of their work” (Jansen, 2001: 242).

2.1.4. TVET Curriculum Implementation by the TVET College Lecturer

Several aspects play a role in getting the student ready for the workplace, for example, the syllabi are extensive, assessment requirements are comprehensive, the offering time per certificate is

only a trimester or semester, not enough time for practical application or that placement in the workplace only happens after all the certificates have been completed successfully.

The implementation of a curriculum is an important consideration in lecturers' practices (Fullan & Pomfret, 1977: 335-397). The implementation, particularly of a new curriculum, can assume several options. It could be that the curriculum being implemented is either outdated or ineffective. It could also be that the outcomes of the envisioned curriculum have not been comprehended or there may be a gap between the envisioned curriculum and the implemented one (Paudel, 2009; Bantwini, 2010: 169-182). The envisioned or intended curriculum is defined as the one prescribed by the policymakers, the implemented curriculum is the one put into effect in the classroom, and the attained curriculum is the one pertaining to what is being learnt by the students (Schofield, 2001; Handal & Herrington, 2003: 59-69; Paudel, 2009; Bantwini, 2010: 83-90). There may also be discrepancies between the envisioned or intended, the implemented and the attained curricula.

Mortimore (1999) explains pedagogy as the science, art and craft of teaching and learning. He says pedagogy primarily includes all actions and values which apprise interactions that are appropriate and taken up to create a culture of learning in which teaching takes place. He states that pedagogy has been overlooked and disregarded to a certain extent, because some agencies choose to concentrate more on factors that they can control, for example, qualifications, funding and a precise notion of teacher quality. His view is also that teaching methods sometimes become a "political football" when a method is considered "traditional" and another "trendy" without being more helpful or unhelpful. With the introduction of vocational pedagogy, most principles are derived from general education. Today there is still a sense that vocational pedagogy is somewhere between training providers and the workplaces.

The relationship between knowledge, skills and work are complex. Allais (2012: 5) explains that where labour markets are ruled by temporary or continually changing jobs, vocational education programmes tend to be either slightly isolated from the immediate needs of the labour market or involved in ever-changing short courses in narrow skills. Vocational education systems which are more appropriate within the needs of industry tend to be located in the framework of an

industrialized industry, secure employment and some degree of redistribution or social insurance (Iverson & Stephens, 2008: 600-637).

Spillane et al. (2002: 387-431) say that the implementation of the curriculum must include the preparation and engagement of college lecturers. They emphasise that a "key dimension of the implementation process is whether, and in what ways, implementing agents come to understand their practice, potentially changing their beliefs and attitudes in the process". They argue that the college lecturers, as implementing agents need "first to notice, then frame, interpret, and construct meaning". They also stress the supremacy of implementing agents in the implementation process. The college lecturers have to share a common sense of what the national curriculum entails and requires. Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi & Gallagher, (2007); Carl, (2009) and Papier, (2010: 153-162) agree that "lecturers require knowledge, new abilities, sufficient time and appropriate technical support to deal with curriculum change in a smooth and seamless way".

It is important to understand that assessment is a purposeful interactive engagement between the teacher and learner. To establish the optimal development in the application of knowledge, competence, skills and values, it is important to unpack formative and summative assessment as examples of assessment strategies that are indispensable in the assessment process. Jenkins (2010: 565-576) argues that assessment consists of two forms – formative assessment and summative assessment. He says that these two forms of assessment each have their own characteristics and functions. Jenkins (2010: 565-576) explains that formative assessment tries to equip the learner with skills and knowledge to improve in the learning process. He also explains that the learner should know at all times what needs to be prepared to demonstrate acquired knowledge. Pryor (2008) explains his view on formative assessment by saying that it is the process whereby the teacher and the learning focus on the learner's work to correct actions, to ensure good learning. He says the interaction during formative assessment must focus firstly, on new ways of "being" for the learner and secondly, on new learning and lived experiences equipping the learner to demonstrate what was learnt in various ways. Jenkins (2010) argues that summative assessment is used to determine a learner's competence and skills and that it is

functional in collecting evidence and proof of competence and skills when giving feedback to learners.

Donohue (2008) says that assessment can only be of value and successful if both the learner and teacher are well aware of what the assessment will be about. He further explains that both learner and teacher must be clear about what the outcomes of the assessment must be and also what exactly is expected of the outcomes. Donohue (2008) refers to it as a "common understanding". Romer's (2003: 233–241) view is different from Donohue's because he states that assessment is senseless if the "new" work of students is judged with "old" pre-determined requirements. Beets (2007: 577-584) takes this further by referring to the relationship between the learner and teacher during the assessment process. He attaches it to morality and ethics. Beets emphasizes the act of ethics as imperative between teacher and learner during the assessment process. He questions the standard of fairness if the learner's socio-cultural circumstances are not taken into consideration during the assessment process. According to Beets (2007: 577-584) assessment cannot be a cold and clinical objective approach, but should rather be a warm, learner-centred with empathy of the learner's social environment.

With regards to vocational lecturers' assessment practices in their classrooms, they have a choice in respect of formative assessment during the process of teaching and learning to prepare the students for summative assessment. The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) issues an annual guideline for internal continuous assessment, namely the ICASS Guidelines which indicates specific rules and regulations as to how internal summative assessments should be conducted on an ongoing basis. It is expected of TVET colleges to set up assessment instruments and assessment tools to conduct, administer and manage the assessment process.

Khanjee (2009: 67-83) explains that assessment practices in the classroom are a very important component in the teaching and learning process as it provides the teacher with relevant information for a better understanding of the learners and their performance and progress. Assessment can be seen as the outcome of the teaching and learning process. Khanjee (2009) therefore declares that classroom assessment practices have to be continuous in nature to ensure that the teacher gets the opportunity and responsibility to react to the information provided by the

assessment outcomes of the learner's performance and progress. Assessment is the process of identifying, gathering and interpreting gained knowledge against the required outcomes of the curriculum of qualification or part-qualification to determine if a students' achievement can be recorded as competent or not yet competent.

Lubisi and Murphy (2002: 255-268) say that the primary focus of assessment before the new curriculum was implemented in South Africa was classification and selection. In this practice, it was in the form of tests and examinations at the end of a term that was recorded to determine only if the learner could or could not be promoted to the next level or standard. New policies and the revised curriculum (DOE, 1997-1998) resulted in a criteria-driven assessment process, rather than a norm-driven assessment process (Khanjee, 2009: 67-83). A high premium is placed on classroom pedagogy, continuous assessment and other assessment techniques – rather than only tests and examinations. Examples of alternative (other) assessment techniques are portfolios of evidence, performance appraisal, self-assessment, group assessment, observation and self-designed tests to raise awareness of prior learning.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

In the second part of this chapter, I present the conceptual lenses used to analyse the different approaches to policy implementation of lecturers in the technical and vocational education and training college sector.

2.2.1. Policy and Policy Implementation

Ball's (1994: 16-21) approach to policy is three-fold, namely: policy as text, policy as discourse and policy as effect. Policy formulation is coded in a complicated manner and decoded in an equally complicated manner, because of implementers' interpretations taking into consideration backgrounds, identities, capabilities and emotions. When Ball (1994: 17) refers firstly, to "policy as text", he argues that government's intervention in the public domain is not detached from inequalities and it attempts to equalise inequalities that might still might result from policy formation. He states that the implementation of policy depends on understanding, commitment, collaboration and resource availability. Government policy is communicated to us in various ways, such as ministerial documentation, departmental circulars, policy papers, ministerial

statements and green and white papers. The final decisions that are taken by these state policymakers and written into policies have to be to the benefit of society. A challenge within the policy-making process is that the outcomes of policy may be contested among different interested groups. This may also impact how the policy is implemented and enacted, which is sometimes different from how it was planned.

Within the sphere of education, policies do not prescribe to schools what to do, they rather give direction and establish practice (Connolly, 1994). Some policies may narrow the range of creative responses more than others. In South Africa, the current Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for schools and the Internal Continuous Assessment (ICASS) Guidelines for the TVET colleges have been described as policies that narrowly define how teaching should take place in schools and colleges (Fataar, 2015). The problem with policy, such as the CAPS and the TVET Curriculum Instruction, is that it is written as a one-size-fits-all and does not properly take varied contexts of implementation into account.

Policy implementation is a complex process that needs to be tackled in phases. Once policy has been formulated, it needs to be implemented. Ball (1994) explains that policy can sometimes not simply be implemented according to prescribed criteria because practice is complicated, refined, conditional and unsteady. Policy implementation is not a straightforward action and the intended policy is often reworked and enacted differently in diverse school and college contexts. Policy implementation is understood as the process whereby government's decisions are put into practice (Berman, 1978). Ball (1994) states that policy enactment is rarely a straightforward phase-in process, rather it can be messy and incoherent at times. Once policy has been finalised by the government, it lands in different schools and colleges in different social contexts. Given the diversity of these contexts in South Africa, educational policy is often re-formed and altered, suitably amended, modified and fine-tuned - in order for it to consider the school context, the learners or students enrolled at the school/college and the teachers/lecturers who teach at the institution.

Policy becomes renovated and reworked during the implementation phase in schools. Contextual dimensions of TVET colleges, for example, histories, physical resources, buildings, staffing

profiles, leadership experience, budgetary situations, education, students from diverse backgrounds or students with special needs, language preferences and barriers, disabilities, social and economic deficits, all play a role in educational policy enactment. As a result, policies often need to be reformulated and renovated to fit the TVET colleges in different locations and settings. It is however expected of colleges - irrespective of their location and other dynamics - to be accountable for how they go about implementing policy.

2.2.2. Backward and Forward Mapping

In this study, curriculum implementation was interpreted by using the forward and backward mapping theoretical lenses as an analytical approach. Elmore (1980: 601-616) discusses two distinctive methods in which policy can be implemented, namely forward mapping and backward mapping. He suggested that the approach of 'forward mapping' involves beginning with an objective followed by a series of stages to reach the set objective. An outcome is set which the objective is measured against – whether it was a success or a failure. Backward mapping is the opposite of forward mapping. Backward mapping is an alternative implementation approach that focuses on the exigent dynamics at it pertains to contexts and dynamics of implementation.

The method of forward mapping comes into play when policymakers pass policy on to those who have to implement it. Elmore says that policymakers may have the best intentions during policy-making, however, he doubts if they always think of those who need to implement policy as well as the challenges going along with the implementation process. The process of forward mapping starts at the top and continues to carry in a specific order from the highest level to the lowest level of implementors. At the bottom of the implementation process, one finds the policy outcomes. Irrespective of the intentions that accompany policy makers' visions for the implementation process one cannot determine if the outcome will be acceptable or not. There are different implementation processes and implementors may follow different approaches, which may also have a different impact on the outcome. Policy implementation entails organisational engagements and administrative activities.

Backward mapping is intertwined with forward mapping as policymakers have an interest in the outcome of the policy that is the end-product of the policy implementation process. Backward mapping clearly interrogates the policy statements and directives to determine what happens during the implementation process to ensure that policy is well implemented. Elmore (1980: 601-616) says that logically backward mapping is the opposite of forward mapping. Forward mapping works from top to bottom, backward mapping starts at the lowest level or last phase - where the administrative activities cross private choices which might have an impact on the objective of the policy.

Backward mapping refers to a bottom-up model where there is constant engagement with the policy implementers allowing for a distribution of authority in the decision-making process (Elmore, 1979). Elmore explains that policymakers have a direct influence on the implementation phase of the policy as they impact the roll-out thereof. The logic of backward mapping poses an alternative analytic approach to narrow the gap between policy formulation and policy implementation.

The starting point of the backward mapping approach is not from ‘top down’, but rather from ‘bottom up’ - where the lowest level of administrative action intersects with personal choices. The top-down implementation approach in schools and TVET colleges is a method where formal authority is executed and a bottom-up implementation approach is a method where the role players on the ground are invited to give input based on their skills and competencies. The point of departure is also not a statement of intent to policy, but rather an attitude of understanding reason and importance of practices on all levels of implementation. Once these attitudes and understandings are clearly formulated the enactment becomes an objective (Elmore, 1979).

It is assumed that policymakers make policies without always taking into consideration what happens at the level of implementation. Government, for example, makes policy on curriculum and expects TVET college lecturers to implement the curriculum without taking into consideration the limitations and constraints on implementation at the TVET college in the classroom (Papier, 2010). These limitations and constraints include lecturers’ backgrounds, identities, lived experiences, subjectivities and challenges - like not being sufficiently qualified

for the subjects they teach; insufficient information communication technology skills, limited resources, for example, electronic devices, learning materials and workplace experience. Government apparently assumes that there are lecturers with sufficient knowledge of education (subject knowledge as a knowledge base) who are equipped to successfully apply their knowledge for education (select, package, pace and teach subject content) - which is not the case in all classrooms. Not all TVET college lecturers are able to apply their knowledge of education into knowledge for education because they are not able to turn their knowledge base into practical teaching and learning in the classroom. TVET college lecturers may have a degree and/or post-graduate certificate in education, however, they might still lack the skills for vocational education and training - which is key in a TVET college. This causes the gap(s) in forward and backward mapping where policy is made, but it cannot be implemented as it should be because of various factors as mentioned before.

2.2.3. Ambiguity-Conflict Model

The second theoretical model for the study is provided by Matland's (1995: 145-174) Ambiguity Conflict Model. This model is an expansion of Elmore's forward and backward mapping model for policy implementation. Matland believes that Elmore's model is useful, but is short of explanatory power. Matland also argues that policy implementation is neither "top-down" or "bottom-up". His model tries to bring the two models together by concentrating on the theoretical value of ambiguity (vagueness) and conflict (policy) for policy implementation. Matland's starting point is the incapability of previous theorists' efforts to marry the 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' models during the policy implementation process. Matland posits that ambiguity or vagueness is a strategy of policymakers to prevent conflict. The more ambiguous the policy, the bigger the probability of conflict. Ambiguity should not be perceived as a defect – wrong or right – in policy formation, it should be seen as an element of policymaking without instilling it with a value. Ambiguity is often to blame when policy implementation fails, but it can also be useful a sa way of deflecting conflict. The model, depicted below provides an explanation to the policymaker to consider where more challenges could appear. For the researcher, it offers a map to the elements that may occur most during implementation and that can have the biggest influence on the outcomes of the policy (Matland, 1995).

TABLE Below: Implementation Processes: Ambiguity-Conflict quadrant

		CONFLICT	
		LOW	HIGH
AMBIGUITY	LOW	Administrative Implementation	Political Implementation
		Resources	**Power**
		E.g. Computers/ICT systems	E.g. High-level Management
	HIGH	Experimental Implementation	Symbolic Implementation
		Contextual Conditions	**Coalition Strength**
		E.g. Middle-level management	E.g. Post-level 1Staff for implementation

This diagram is at the heart of Matland's model. It must be properly and succinctly explained, as I hopefully do below.

ADMINISTRATIVE IMPLEMENTATION - *Low Policy Ambiguity and Low Policy Conflict*

Decision-making with low conflict and low ambiguity are a prerequisite for sensible decision-making. Goals are set and resources are provided to resolve existing challenges.

POLITICAL IMPLEMENTATION - *High Policy Ambiguity and Low Policy Conflict*

Decision-making theories with high conflict and low ambiguity are typical in political models for functional decision-making. These types of policies are not automatically followed and implemented. Successful implementation depends on sufficient authority to enforce the provision or resources for resolving existing challenges.

EXPERIMENTAL IMPLEMENTATION - *Low Policy Ambiguity and High Policy Conflict*

For decision-making theories with low conflict and high ambiguity, successful implementation is determined by the cohort of role players who are active and involved in the decision-making process. The goals lean heavily on the resources that are available as well as the role players that are present in the micro-implementation environment. The ambiguity in policy fluctuates depending on the context, and therefore the level of conflict is low.

SYMBOLIC IMPLEMENTATION - *High Policy Ambiguity and Low Policy Conflict*

Matland (1990) says that in decision-making theory it might sound unlikely that any policy may have high levels of conflict and high levels of ambiguity. Symbolic policies play an important role in the reconfirmation of important values and principles. The high level of conflict is essential because it creates a structure for the development of decisions. The inherent ambiguity leads to several and different interpretations.

Elmore and Matland both put it bluntly that there are gaps in any specific approach to policy formulation and policy implementation. Elmore's (1980) model of forward and backward mapping focuses on the involvement, or not, of the role players, while Matland's (1990) model focuses on the level of ambiguity in the various interpretations of policy and its implementation.

Conclusion

This chapter provided a discussion of the literature that relates to, and informs, the research focus. It discussed the professional backgrounds and roles of TVET lecturers, the governmental policy documents that frame and inform their work, and the contextual dimensions of the college teaching. The chapter also discussed the curriculum implementation related to teaching, learning and assessment and lecturers' capacities and strategies in this regard. The chapter concluded by offering a set of theoretical lenses for analysing the data collected during the research. Elmore's backward and forward mapping lense and Matland's conflict-ambiguity quadrant were offered as the interpretive framework for understanding the lecturers' curriculum experiences at their TVET college.

Chapter 3: Research methodology and methods

3.1. Introduction

The chapter gives a brief description of the two main methodology paradigms, followed by a description of the research design, the research methods and the procedures for the collection and analysis of the data. The chapter concludes with a brief description of the validity, reliability and ethical considerations that is indispensable to such a research study.

3.2. Research Methodology

Qualitative research strives to present a thorough and meaningful understanding based on the meaning and definitions of situations as implied by the participants (Wainwright, 1997: 1). Fortune and Reid (1999: 94), identify the following aspects that are specific to qualitative research:

- The researcher seeks to gain a holistic understanding of the phenomenon by adopting a flexible strategy of problem formulation and data collection as the research progresses.
- The researcher uses research methods such as observation and unstructured interviews to gain an in-depth knowledge of how the participants construct their social realities.

In contrast, quantitative research can be seen as a logical and orderly inquiry of facts by collecting countable data by executing numerical, statistical or calculated methods. Quantitative research gathers information by means of sampling methods via surveys and questionnaires whereby the outcomes can be illustrated arithmetically or in any other numerical format. Quantitative research is in most cases carried out in the social sciences using numerical methods to gather the quantitative data from the research study. When data is collected for quantitative research, a structured approach and method are used on a sample that embodies the participant from a larger group or population. The quantitative research methodology is a method of generalisation based on numbers and statistics.

Ragin (1987) says that in the case of the qualitative approach the researcher works with few cases and many variables. In a qualitative study, the researcher mostly starts with the ‘how’ or

'what' questions to generate a description and understanding of the particular phenomenon that is being researched. Morgan et.al. (1998: 12) state that "qualitative research is useful for exploration and discovery". According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000: 4), qualitative research is a multimethod focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study occurrences in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, and interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

Qualitative research involves the collection of a variety of empirical materials that are made up of personal experience, introspective life stories, and observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts that describe routine and problematic moments and meaning in individuals' lives. Fortune and Reid (1999: 94), explain that in qualitative research the researcher is motivated to develop a holistic understanding of the phenomenon through a flexible strategy of formulating the problem and then obtaining the data as the research study develops. Various methods such as observation and interviews are used to gain in-depth knowledge and understanding of the participants that are involved in the research study. Qualitative research methodology assumes that first-hand knowledge and understanding are gained and collected by the researcher.

Qualitative research is investigative in nature. Common methods of data collection used in this type of research are ethnographic involvement or observation, bulletin boards, uninterrupted observation, in-depth interviews, dyads, triads and focus groups. Marshall and Rossman (1999: 46) explains that qualitative research explores complex situations and processes that attempt to determine where and why policy and practice intersect.

Mackenzie and Knipe (2006: 94) state that the overarching theoretical framework is a paradigm if it influences the way in which knowledge is studied and interpreted and also say that the methodology, methods and literature have an impact on the research design. Guba and Lincoln (1994: 107) claim that a paradigm is a basic set of assumptions that represent a perspective of the natural world, the place of the individual within the world, and the possible relationships with the world. Henning (2004: 17-25) offers three theoretical paradigms by which the researcher can position a study, namely positivism, interpretivism and critical theory and even suggests specific key verbs associated with each paradigm. Henning associates the verbs, "predict" and "test" with

positivism as a research paradigm, “interpret” and “construct” with interpretivism and “improve” and “change” with critical theory as a research paradigm (2004: 16).

Interpretivism is the paradigm that underpins my specific research study. The interpretive perspective places primary emphasis on the process of understanding. Terreblanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006: 273) explain that “the interpretive paradigm involves taking people’s subjective experiences seriously as the essence of what is real for them (ontology) and making sense of these experiences” (273). In this light, I encouraged the participants to reflect on their experiences, meanings and perceptions. This involved me identifying the participant’s beliefs and perceptions that address the research topic.

For the interpretive researcher, it is important to find out how people understand their world and how they construct and live out meaning. This research is about discovery, giving meaning, how people adapt and show understanding of what is happening to them. The respondents must therefore be motivated by the researcher to share their views of their worlds with others (Pietersen, 2007: 37). As academic head that manages teaching and learning at the selected site, I wanted to understand how college lecturers implement the curriculum. I took care to ensure that my own positionality did not influence the research study. Interpretive research provides an understanding of emotions, experiences, social situations or occurrences in the real world. In this paradigm, meanings are the most important of the findings. The researcher tries to establish and describe the logic individuals compose of their social world. The duty of the researcher is to comprehend the intentions of the participant, and in doing so, “the phenomenologist attempts to see things from that person’s point of view” (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975:13-14). The researchers must deliberately try to put themselves in the shoes of the participants that they observe and study the research to be able to find meaning and understand the actions, decisions, behaviour, and practices of the participants from their own perspectives.

The place of my research was the usual working environment of the participants. I gained access to the participant’s feelings and minds by using interviews to gain a better understanding and find meaning in their daily lived experiences with regards to all facets of implementation of the curriculum. Maykut and Morehouse (1995: 45) state that the qualitative researcher is interested

in interpreting people's experiences in context. Finally, Sherman and Webb (1998: 7) describe interpretive research as "a direct concern with experience as it is lived or felt or undergone and it has the aim of understanding experience as nearly as possible as its participants feel or live it". My research study's primary focus was on the TVET college lecturers' lived experiences and challenges as lecturers in the college sector.

3.3. Sampling

The sample for my study was six TVET college lecturers. The purposive sampling method was used as the sampling method in my study. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011) define the purposive sampling method as a process whereby the researcher selects a sample based on experience or knowledge of the group. Purposive sampling was used in the study to enable the researcher to identify and choose participants that would best satisfy the needs and objectives of the research. Creswell (2011) states that purposive sampling is a non-probability sample that is selected, based on characteristics of a population and the objective of the research. The main objective of purposive sampling is to select a sample that can be reasonably acceptable to represent the total population. This is done by applying expert knowledge of the total population to select the sample to represent a cross-section of the total population.

Purposive sampling is a sampling technique that is widely used in qualitative research to identify and select data (Patton, 2002). This involves identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals that are especially knowledgeable about or have experience of a phenomenon of interest (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In the case of my research, all participants had the same interest, namely being newly appointed in the college sector and having to implement the curriculum.

The reason for choosing this sampling method was because all six participants that I selected for my research study were TVET college lecturers at a TVET college. They were all actively involved in curriculum practices in the classroom with regards to administration, teaching and learning and assessment practices. The six participants were purposively selected from one TVET college in the northern suburbs of Cape Town in the Western Cape. The participants that I selected were all able to provide valuable input that addresses the purpose and focus of my

research. The participants in my study were a group of six lecturers at a TVET college, who are responsible for the teaching and learning of students in the intermediate phase, levels two to four, and who are confronted by the standards as per the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) levels two to four. The participants that I selected were all actively involved in the implementation of the curriculum in their classrooms.

How I selected them was to first determine whether they were new lecturers in the system. For me, the best sample would have been newly appointed lecturers because I wanted to understand how they adapted and adjusted to the TVET college sector with their qualification(s), workplace or industry experience, their backgrounds and their identities and how they could use all these factors to implement the curriculum in the classroom. I also wanted to understand what challenges they were facing and if they received support to become accustomed to the new environment of vocational and occupational education.

The site that I selected for the research study was one TVET College based in the Northern Suburbs of Cape Town in the Western Cape. It is an urban college with seven campuses, nearly one thousand employees and more than thirteen thousand full-time students in different occupational and vocational learning programmes.

Wellington (2000: 41) views the researcher as an instrument and emphasises the key role that the researcher plays in the qualitative research method. Henning et al. (2004: 66) highlight the relationship between the researcher and the participant(s) where the participants are granted the opportunity to raise their opinions and views with regards to their subjective (lived) experiences so that the researcher can understand their thoughts, experiences and viewpoints. Interviews are therefore a representation of true and valid experiences that take place in other people's (participants) lives. During the interview process with the participants in my study, I continuously reminded myself that I need to be flexible and adaptable in order to adjust to unforeseen situations and opportunities rather than experience obstacles and threats. The interviews required me to be a good listener so that I could reflect on the participants' thoughts, feelings and ideas. It forced me to remain impartial with regard to their preconceived ideas and statements. I was also obliged to take into account the professional relationship between me and

the TVET college lecturers. Therefore, it was important to assure the six interviewees of my professionalism and non-judgementalism with regard to their responses to my questions.

1.1. Methods

The research methods that I have chosen for my study were focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews. The respondents completed a short questionnaire prior to the interviews and focus group discussions, because I wanted to collect personal information regarding their qualifications, age and years of experience.

1.2. Focus Group Discussions

A focus group discussion is a qualitative research method in the social sciences with a specific prominence whereby the researcher's objective is to generate the maximum number of inputs, discussions and responses among the sample that represents the total population. In the case of my research study, the selected six TVET college lecturers at one college were to take part in focus group interviews and discussions in presenting the total population of lecturers at the one college. The dynamics in the focus group discussions were not the same as in the face-to-face interviews with the participants as some of them were more open for discussions in the group than on a one-to-one basis (Morgan et al., 1998).

Advantages of focus group interviews or discussions are that the researcher can interact with a group of participants at the same time, posing follow-up questions or ask other questions that inquire more deeply. The researcher can also gather information from non-verbal responses, for example, facial expressions and/or body language.

Disadvantages of focus group interviews or discussions are that the sample size – in the case of my research study, the six participants as the focus group - might not be a decent representation of the bigger population. Time may become a factor if the group strays from the posed question. Therefore, it can be a challenge to direct and organise group discussions. The researcher's questioning skills may affect the responses of the participants and skew the results.

1.3. Interviews

I selected semi-structured interviewing for my research study. Oakley (1998: 707) states that the qualitative interview is a type of framework in which the practices and standards are not only recorded but also achieved, challenged as well as reinforced. Oakley also says that most qualitative research interviews are either semi-structured, lightly structured or in-depth. The most general characteristic of the semi-structured interviews is that each participant is asked the same question or set of questions are asked to each participant. This method makes it much easier to compare collected data from participants after the interviews. If the researcher uses semi-structured interviews the freedom exists to explore the topic more deeply and to gather more detailed data from the participants. Semi-structured interviews are those in-depth interviews where the participants have to answer open-ended questions that were prepared prior to the interview.

I recorded the interviews. I used the audio recorder of my cellular phone which worked well. I transcribed the conversations as soon as possible after the conversation was done so that the nuances of the dialogues were not lost as time went by. I also took notes during the conversations and after each session with the participants. Reflective notes are essential when selecting qualitative data.

Interviews also have the disadvantage of the possibility that the researcher may be biased. Some researchers cannot maintain a sense of objectivity and the participant may fail to tell the truth. In such a situation the researcher may hear what he/she wants to hear. During an interview session, the participant may be very negative and this negative stream of feedback may have an unnecessarily negative impact on the outcome of the research. The sequence I followed was first the questionnaire, then focus group interviews, then semi-structured interviews

1.4. Data Analysis

I used an inductive data analysis approach to analyse the data. The thematic data analysis method was used to analyse the data. Thematic data analysis is a method used to identify themes and patterns of meaning across a dataset in relation to a research question. The data that I have gathered in my study was covered in phases. The first phase was familiarising myself with the data. It was essential to read and study the data to make sure that I understood the participant's answers that I wrote down and recorded. The better I understood the data, the better analysis, conclusion and understanding I could provide to my study and reader. I tried to get "into" my research study in order to gain a better understanding and meaning of exactly what I was researching, i.e. the TVET college lecturer. I made notes and voice recordings with my cellular phone to ensure that I did not miss some of the valuable inputs from the participants (Morgan, 1988).

Directly after each session, I captured the recordings and notes into my study. The second phase was to reduce the data by means of collating it into codes and themes. I eliminated all irrelevant data and information that I could not use. By organising the data systemically, it was easier to work with the remaining data to assist me to understand it better. By understanding it better, I was able to provide the best possible conclusion and meaning to my research study. Organising the data that I had gathered was the third phase. This was an essential and active process to follow in order to sort the data in different codes and themes which assisted me in making more sense throughout my study. A code can be described as a file or 'container' into which you put each piece of data that you have gathered. Coding is the first step in starting to give structure to data. A theme can be described as a label for this file or container. The themes are more abstract in nature.

Once I had finished the coding of the data and sorted it into themes, I started to construct and display it according to my thematic categories. The next phase was the data analysis and conclusion of my research study. I discussed the finding of my analysis and conclusion with my

peers and academic friends at university in order to verify my own understanding and the validity of my conclusions.

Ethical Consideration

For this research study to be in line with the requirements and procedures of research, I gained permission from the Research Ethical Committee (REC) of the University of Stellenbosch. I also asked permission from the Western Cape Education Department as well as from the principal of the TVET college where I did my research study. Once I got permission from the REC, WCED and the TVET college principal I requested my participants to sign a personal consent form to ensure that stated that they were aware of the ethical consideration of my study. I ensured that they knew that all information would be kept confidential. Confidentiality was explained to the participants as I assured them that their names would not be mentioned in the study or at any other given time.

1.5. Conclusion

The intention of this chapter was to describe how I conducted my research with regard to the research methodology and methods used in my study. The research methodology and methods were explained as well as the method I had chosen for my study. I also gave a detailed explanation of how I collected the data for my study by means of interviews (semi-structured) and focus group discussions. The chapter also discussed extensively how data was collected, analysed and presented by using codes and themes. Finally, I discussed issues pertaining to ethical consideration to my research by ensuring validity and reliability.

Chapter 4: Data Presentation

4.1 Introduction

The aim of my study is to explore the curriculum implementation practices of six selected college lecturers at one TVET college. The data presentation is presented based on focus group discussions and interviews that I had with six respondents who were appointed as college lecturers at one TVET college. The chapter focuses on the nature and extent of their professional backgrounds, taking into consideration their academic and professional qualifications. It also focuses on how they receive and interpret the college curriculum using their professional backgrounds and lived experiences to interact with different dimensions - such as teaching styles, subject content, administration, pedagogies and assessment - of curriculum implementation practices in their classrooms. The chapter is presented starting with an introduction, followed by three themes and a conclusion. In theme one, I present the data on the impact of the lecturers' background and professional training in positioning them for curriculum implementation at the college. I will sketch their professional backgrounds and how they ended up at the college. The second theme focuses on the lecturers' reception and interpretation of the college curriculum implementation. Theme three deals with their lecturing pedagogy with regards to learning and teaching styles, teaching methods (pedagogies), administration duties and assessment.

4.2. The selected lecturers' professional backgrounds and their preparedness for lecturing at a TVET college

In the first theme, I focus on the professional backgrounds of the college lecturers with respect to their preparedness for lecturing at a TVET college. This theme is intended to provide an understanding of how their backgrounds position them for their curriculum implementation practices.

Respondent number one is a 45-year-old female lecturer who grew up in a Coloured Muslim family and worked at a flea market after she matriculated in 1994 before she decided to start her studies at Northlink TVET College. She completed her studies at the college and obtained the NQF level 6 three-year qualification in Management Assistant. She started as an intern clerk at the college and was later appointed at the college as an administration clerk where she worked

for fifteen years. She furthered her education at the Cape Town University of Technology (CPUT) and obtained a teaching qualification – the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) - in 2016-2017. She continued with her Honours Degree in Education at CPUT in 2018 and completed the NQF level 8 qualification in 2019. She started lecturing in 2020 at the age of 45 years. She came to the college with industry experience.

The second respondent is a Coloured female, 31 years of age who grew up and matriculated in Atlantis. After finishing school in 2004, she completed a three year, NQF level 7 Bachelor's Degree in Public Management and Law at the University of the Western Cape (UWC). She continued her studies at UWC and completed her Honours and Master's degree in Public Management and Law in 2016. She did not complete a teaching qualification. When she finished her studies at UWC in 2016 she worked in Local Government and Government departments, City of Cape Town, Statistics South Africa (STATS SA) and Home Affairs. In 2018 she decided that she wanted to become a lecturer and she applied at the college for a lecturing position. She got appointed as a lecturer in 2018 and started lecturing at the age of 31 years. She came to the college with experience of working in industry.

The third respondent is a 24-year-old Coloured female who grew up in Athlone with her mother and two sisters. After finishing matric in 2013, she studied at CPUT, completing an NQF level 6 three-year diploma in Sport Management. She obtained the PGCE teaching qualification at CPUT in 2016. She taught at a high school for one year in 2017 and then decided that she was interested in becoming a lecturer at a TVET college. She was appointed as a lecturer at the college in 2018. She furthered her studies at CPUT and obtained the NQF level 8 B.Ed. Honours Degree in Education in 2019. She came to the college as a former high school teacher.

The fourth respondent is a 40-year-old Coloured female who grew up in the west coast town of Atlantis. She matriculated in 2004 and furthered her studies at CPUT where she completed an NQF level 6 three-year diploma in Public Management in 2007. She continued her studies at CPUT and completed the NQF level 7 B.Tech Degree in Public Management in 2008 and the NQF level 8 M.Tech Degree in Public Management in 2011. From 2011 she worked at the City of Cape Town municipal services as an administration clerk. She became a lecturer at the college

in 2013. She did not complete a teaching qualification. She came to the college with industry experience.

The fifth respondent is a 60-year-old Coloured female who grew up in a family of ten children. She grew up in poverty on the Cape Flats. She was the only child of the family who matriculated in 1978 and qualified as an educator in 1982 at CPUT where she completed the NQF level 6 Higher Diploma in Education. She was employed as a teacher at a high school from 1983 until 2005. She filled different positions in the schooling sector, such as teacher and head of department. From 2005 until 2009 she was appointed at CPUT, where she did company-based training in aspects such as assessment, moderation work, train-the-trainer work, mentoring and coaching. From 2010 until 2015 she was employed at the Western Cape Sport School as subject head, acting HOD and hostel superintendent until December 2015. During this period, she completed the NQF level 8 Honours degree in Education at CPUT. She then decided to work from home working as a guest house owner, medical aid broker, and insurance and estate agent. In 2018 she decided that she wanted to become a college lecturer. She was appointed as a lecturer in the middle of 2018. She came to the college as a former high school teacher with industry experience.

The sixth respondent was a white male of 59-years-old. He grew up in a middle-class family of three children in the Northern suburbs of Cape Town and matriculated in 1978. He started his studies at the University of Stellenbosch and completed the NQF level 7 three-year Bachelor's degree in Public Management in 1985. Afterwards, he also completed the NQF level 8 Honours in Public Management in 1992 and the NQF level 9 Master's degree in Public Management in 1994 at the University of Stellenbosch. He worked at a South African Police Training College from 1995 to 1997, where he headed up the Management Development Department of the South African Police Service. During 1999 he worked at the University of Stellenbosch as a consultant and part-time lecturer in the School for Public Management. In 2002 he completed the NQF level 10 PhD in Public Management at the University of Stellenbosch. From then to 2017 he worked at various institutions, such as PriceWaterhouseCoopers (PWC), Bank of South Pacific, University of Cape Town and Unashamedly Ethical, where he facilitated training workshops for various clients. From 2018 to 2019 he worked as an independent consultant at NACOSA, a Non-

Governmental Organisation (NGO) where he implemented a Performance Management Framework. In 2019 he decided that he wanted to become a lecturer at the college and was appointed in 2019. He did not complete a teaching qualification. He came to the college with industry and teaching experience.

During my interviews with the six respondents, it was clear that all of them were qualified with at least a qualification that pitches on level 7 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). To be more specific, four lecturers hold an Honours degree (NQF level 8), one holds a Master's degree (NQF level 9) and one holds a PhD (NQF level 10). Three of the six respondents (50%) completed a teaching qualification; two of the six respondents (40%) were former high school teachers. Three of the six respondents (50%) came to college with industry experience and were not teachers before they were appointed as lecturers at the college.

In the interview sessions, the respondents shared their lived experiences with me and stated that they felt that it was difficult to adapt to lecturing at a TVET college as the prevailing TVET college culture contributes to positioning the lecturers in a particular way. By this, the participants refer to the lack of effective guidance and support that they received when they arrived at the college. In their opinion, as new lecturers at the college, they felt that they did not receive the desired support from the institution. Due to this, the respondents stated that they were required to take the TVET curriculum and implement it by drawing on their previous teaching experience (which only two of the six respondents had) or by simply making the best sense of the curriculum they were given to implement. They explained to me that the college did support them in the form of a short induction and orientation programme, which was done in one day. From there on they were assigned to mentors, but they agreed that the expectations were so high, the work so much and time so little that there was hardly time to consult with their mentors. They received a meeting calendar that indicated that they had to attend (different) meetings every Friday. These meetings were departmental meetings for general administrative related matters, subject meetings for subject related matters and other meetings - where they could share best practices or their own lived experiences. If there was no meeting scheduled on a specific Friday, they prepared online learning material, prepared their lesson plans, did marking and moderation

of scripts or other administrative-related duties, for example, they had to capture assessment results and/or student attendance on the college's administration system.

The respondents disclosed their feelings regarding positioning themselves as college lecturers at the college. They said that in the TVET college sector the perception is that professionally the TVET sector is seen as having low status in the education profession with low salaries. The TVET colleges are mostly managed in a top-down manner which often excludes the TVET college lecturer from being involved in the decision-making processes and formation of policies. They felt that this impacts how they implement the curriculum - as they were not given an opportunity to be involved in any of the decisions about the curriculum and the policies. The college receives the curriculum policies from the Department of Higher Education and Training and the college lecturer must implement them in the classroom. During the interviews, all six participants noted how difficult it has been for them to adapt to lecturing in the TVET environment. Despite their lived experiences and qualifications and subject knowledge, they struggled with implementing the curriculum in the classroom. Daily, the respondents experienced challenges with classroom management, student diversity, how to set question papers and memoranda, how to plan and prepare lesson plans, how to conduct assessments, how to manage the administrative load, etc. Each one of them mentioned that they had to find their own way to deal with all these challenges in their classrooms and the college environment. Even though two of the lecturers were qualified as schoolteachers, they claim that there was no standardised formal training and support programme at the college. They explained to me that they had to do formal training, e.g., an Honours degree in Education, assessor training, moderator training, facilitator training, etc. and informal training, e.g., Microsoft Excel training, how to set up a power-point presentation, etc., to transform themselves from industry workers or former schoolteachers to become lecturers at the college. The respondents described that they felt they were working in an ever-changing environment and that they had to face the challenges they came across without any proper support. The respondents said that they had to adapt to the college environment, their peers, managers, and management structures. The respondents felt that they were not seen by or known to management and that they were just at the college to do their jobs. It made them feel frustrated and disempowered as they did not even have a say in decision-making or what was expected from them.

The respondents felt that the shift from being a former schoolteacher or working in industry to a college lecturer was difficult and challenging because of the complicated TVET college sector as a teaching environment. They mentioned that the students must be taught theoretical knowledge, practical application and workplace learning in a very tight time frame. The curriculum is pre-packed, the subject content is prescribed, assessments are managed and controlled – all by the Department of Higher Education and Training - and they must deliver this curriculum to diverse students without getting prior training and support.

In relation to the lecturers who took part in this study and from the interview discussions with the respondents, it was clear that the lecturers were not adequately qualified and trained to know how to implement, from a teaching perspective, the college curriculum. The lecturers also lacked the required knowledge, skills, and industry experience to effectively implement the college curriculum at a college level. The respondents agreed that although they had a personal and professional background, together with lived experiences, they were not prepared for what was waiting in the college classroom.

The collected data shows clearly that the respondents had the required qualifications and/or workplace experience and it was assumed that this would assist the lecturers to feel prepared and capacitated to implement the curriculum in the classroom. However, the lecturers felt that they were not suitably equipped to implement the curriculum in all its facets because they did not have the necessary specialised training and support.

One of the respondents said that she felt like a blindfolded teacher wandering in the dark. She knew what had to be done but did not understand what she was doing and why she was doing it. She struggled to shift from being a schoolteacher to being a lecturer.

Another of the respondents said:

> My academic and professional qualifications did not prepare me for what was waiting in the classroom. What helped me was to work in lecturer groups where

> information was shared, valuable advice given and where group participants assisted one another to understand the curriculum. For me this was the informal training that I went through. After each academic day I have to stay at campus to make sure that I am prepared for the next academic day. I need to stay in contact with my peer colleagues by sending cell phone [*WhatsApp*] messages if I need any information or support from them.

The qualifications of the respondents were not specially designed for vocational education in a TVET college. School teachers normally do an academic qualification followed by a professional teaching qualification. College lecturers enter the sector with various qualifications, no qualification or with industry experience. They do not necessarily know how to prepare the students academically or for the world of work.

It is expected of college lecturers to "train young school leavers, providing them with skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for employment in the labour market" (DHET, 2013: 11). They also need to provide mid-level skills training for industries such as Engineering, Construction, Tourism, Hospitality, General Studies and Management. The White Paper for Post School Education and Training (PSET) (DHET, 2013) views post-school education and training as a differentiated and integrated system for universities and colleges in South Africa. It is expected from the post-school education sector to promote the development of thinking citizens "who can function effectively, creatively and ethically as part of a democratic society" (DHET, 2013: viii). The White Paper for PSET (DHET, 2013) also focuses on strengthening TVET colleges to better "quality of teaching and learning and increasing their responsiveness to local labour markets". One of the strategies to improve academic delivery is "well-educated, capable and professional teaching staff" (DHET, 2013: 16). This strategy requires the professionalization of college lecturers, development of guidelines for minimum qualifications for lecturers, lecturer training and development and minimum professional requirements for employment in TVET colleges.

The DHET has also published a Policy on Professional Qualifications for TVET college lectures (Government Gazette, No. 36554, 2013) and a Policy on Professional Qualifications for

Lecturers (PPQL, 2013) in Technical and Vocational Education and Training. The DHET established the South African Institute for Vocational and Continuing Education and Training (SAIVCET) to support TVET colleges to develop lecturers in subject content knowledge to improve pedagogical approaches and practices and to keep up with the latest trend in the labour markets (DHET 2013: 26). This signal, amongst other things, that college lecturers with qualifications in Trades must attain pedagogical skills to teach at a college. It is expected from lecturers to be able to Lecturers that obtained a teaching qualification are also expected to be competent in subject content knowledge. Incentives are granted to TVET college lecturers who better their qualifications and they are offered the opportunity to move into managerial positions and other functional areas where their skills sets may be needed (DHET, 2013: 17).

The White Paper for PSET (DHET, 2013: 17) also refers to and mentions that workplace experience is required by lecturers "to ensure that their training is up to date with workplace needs and to provide lecturers with a better understanding of the needs of employers in their field". It states specifically that the lecturers must attend to the workplace in their field of study to gain exposure and practical experience in the latest trends and developments in their fields of study for them to deliver subject content and education that are relevant and current.

In relation to the lecturers who took part in this study and from the interview discussions with the respondents, it was clear that the lecturers were not adequately qualified and trained to know how to implement, from a teaching perspective, the college curriculum. Some of the respondents lacked the required knowledge, professional teaching qualification, skills and/or industry experience to effectively implement the college curriculum. The respondents agreed that having the relevant academic and professional teaching qualifications as well as workplace experience would assist college lecturers to feel better prepared and capacitated to implement the curriculum.

4.3. Reception and interpretation of the curriculum by TVET college lecturers

The second theme focuses on how the six college lecturers received and interpreted the college curriculum. The six respondents at the one college received and interpreted the curriculum in different and diverse ways. When the lecturers arrived at the college, they each had a one-day

induction and orientation programme. On the agenda were the following points: understanding the TVET landscape, policies and procedures, resources, academic delivery, setting question papers and memoranda, assessment and moderation, administration, lesson planning, human resources and the SWOT analysis. Each lecturer received a weekly timetable for at least twenty-five lecturing periods. Each lecturer had to teach at least two subjects in the curriculum. Together with the weekly timetable, they received the textbook (s) and subject and assessment guides. The respondents also received a management plan with important dates and deadlines. And then the academic year started. They did not have any say or input into the curriculum nor in the implementation thereof. It was perceived as a pre-packaged curriculum with tight timeframes. The government provides and manages the college curriculum. The TVET college receives the college curriculum from the government together with many other policies, instructions and guidelines as to how to execute it. Together with this, there are certain targets set by the department, regional offices and the college itself. The college is accountable for implementing the curriculum as instructed by the department. The college lecturers have to make sense of the curriculum by complying with a very tight timeframe, implement it and meet all the expectations from the different stakeholders such as the students, parents, community, industry and other role-players. One respondent said:

> When I initially ended up at the College I could not make sense of the curriculum, it was too much. There were too many things that I had to take into consideration at the same time. I could not understand what exactly was expected from me. However, I was a former teacher at a high school, I almost had a nervous breakdown in the first term. It was just too much for me. I received instructions from my programme manager with regards to the curriculum and the timeframes were very tight. I had to comply to each deadline. Sometimes I had to work overtime during the week and the whole of the weekend just to be compliant. There were so many expectations that I could not make sense which one to adhere to first. It felt like I was on a roller coaster. It took me quite some time to adapt to the volume of work in a very tight timeframe.

Two respondents were former higher school teachers. The other four respondents were not trained and qualified as teachers and therefore they did not have the educational knowledge or skills to teach or lecture at a college. The two respondents who were qualified school teachers described the college environment as different to teaching in the school context. The only thing that was similar to teaching at a school is that the curriculum was prescribed and controlled by the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). What was, however, very different from teaching at a school was the environment, diverse student population and a curriculum that focused on the teaching of theoretical, practical and workplace knowledge.

The respondents mentioned that they did not receive enough communication on how to implement the curriculum. They each had to find their own way. What helped them was the support and guidance they received from their College lecturer peers. One of the respondents said their 'WhatsApp' group of lecturers was her lifesaver. The respondents envisaged themselves as implementation agents as they were the implementers of the curriculum in the classroom. What demotivated them was the lack of input they could make to the curriculum. They also experienced a lack of sufficient resources such as learning materials, administrative support and also training and support with regard to the use of computers, data projectors, visualisers, and interactive whiteboards. They explained to me that the problem is not that they do not have the resources, but they do not always know and understand how to use the resources. For example, the interactive whiteboards were installed in their classrooms but no one showed them how to use and operate them.

The respondents said that it felt as if their professionalism was not acknowledged, because there was not a process of sufficient communication with regards to how to implement the curriculum or to explain the college's expectations of the college lecturers. This resulted in a lack of motivation because they were not clear on what exactly the curriculum entailed. As one respondent said, it made the whole process of curriculum implementation even more challenging.

The respondents had to find a strategy for making sense of the curriculum before they started to implement it. They had to find their feet in the college and draw on their professional skills to prepare themselves to implement the curriculum. They adopted different learning styles and

pedagogies. They had to deal with a number of challenges for example; the content, their teaching strategies, the diverse student population, levels of difficulty and cognitive demands as well as the format of the assessments and class management. Some of the respondents also raised language as a challenge, because English was the only language of instruction as per the college policy. Most of their students have other languages as their first language.

Two of the respondents mentioned that their professionalism was seen differently at the college than when they were at school. They felt that there were expectations of them as TVET college lecturers that they sometimes struggled to fulfil due to the fact that they had not received any training and support as to how they should implement and deliver the curriculum. They experienced that the expectation from the college was that once the lecturer was appointed, they were experts in their field of study. It was expected that they will know how to lecture and deliver the subject content of the curriculum. The TVET College Institutional Policy (2013) outlines the job profiles of lecturers. The primary task of a lecturer is to lecture and engage with the students in a classroom where they are expected to create a learning atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning. It is also expected from the lecturer to set up assessments and memoranda for tests and examinations. They need to do the marking and recording of the marks/assessment results. Lecturers are required to help with student evaluation and do subject-specific remedial teaching as an intervention to support the poor performing students. Expectations of the college were that lecturers were able to interpret and implement the curriculum, plan and prepare year plans, assessment plans, lesson plans and the necessary course material using different methods and platforms and conduct research and fieldwork to familiarise themselves with the latest trends in industry. It was expected of lecturers to stay abreast of the workplace and industry demands and to be able to use the subjects they lecture to equip students for the workplace. In vocational education, students come to learn and to get themselves skilled or re-skilled in order to work in a technical vocation area. One of the respondents stated:

> It was difficult for me to understand and implement the curriculum. My qualifications and professional background did not prepare me well enough for teaching and learning in the classroom of a college. There are just too many factors in vocational teaching and learning that I needed to take into consideration which I was not

> prepared for. Working with the students inside and outside the classroom also had many challenges. My background as a former teacher did help me with the basics of teaching and learning.

The respondents formed part of subject focus groups which helped them to interpret the curriculum. All facets of the curriculum and subject content were dealt with in these focus groups. They formed WhatsApp groups and could discuss the subject topics and content in the focus groups. They deemed it necessary to be part of such a subject focus group as they felt that they were working in an ever-changing environment and that they had to face the challenges they came across on a daily basis many times without any proper support. The respondents said that if the department changed, updated or reviewed policies, the college had to change their policies to deliver the curriculum to be compliant with DHET's instructions, then they had to change. Every time it felt as if they had to adapt to a new working environment, peers, managers and management structures. These changes disrupted well-known norms and procedures and caused high levels of stress for some lecturers. One respondent said:

> I felt as if I am not seen or known by management and that I was just at the college to do my work. I focus a lot on my subject and students, but it made me feel frustrated because I am disempowered and did not have a say in any decisions. I just had to comply with a tremendous workload that I had to plan and prepare thoroughly to manage in the classroom. However, I feel I improved myself by professional discussions with my peers in the subject focus group discussions.

The respondents felt that they had not been given adequate training and support to implement and deliver the curriculum in the way it should be done. In the TVET college sector, further education and training are recognised as vocational education which means the lecturer needs to prepare the students for employment and for the world of work. The lecturers who were schoolteachers were familiar with the CAPS curriculum and therefore found it relatively easy to relate to the college curriculum as it is similarly packaged, managed, and controlled. Besides the theoretical component of the curriculum consisting of the subject content, it also needed to be implemented in such a way that the practical component is dominant together with the workplace

component to define itself as vocational education which addresses the national economic nature and skills demand for development in the country. And then there is also the workplace component to add work readiness to the student's bouquet of knowledge and skills. They described the challenge of their qualifications which were of an academic and professional nature and not specially designed for vocational education.

Some of the respondents mentioned the difference in vocational education from teaching at a school. In a school, you have an academic qualification as well as a teaching qualification. In the college sector not all the lecturers have both qualifications or know how to prepare the student for the world of work. The department and college stated specifically that the lecturers had to attend the workplace in their field of study to gain exposure and practical experience in the latest trends to be able to lecture in their fields of study for them to train the students for the relevant industries. The six respondents were suitably qualified with regards to their academic qualifications, but not as lecturers as stipulated in the Policy on Professional Qualifications for Lecturers (PPQL, 2013). The respondents believed that they were not adequately qualified and trained to know how to teach the college curriculum. They lacked the required knowledge, skills, and industry experience to effectively implement the college curriculum at the right level and format.

The six respondents told me how they experience and respond to students and the student's requirements for learning. For the six college lecturers, their students are important, and they strive to build lasting relationships that can enhance their learning experience at the college. Interaction between lecturers and students is another important strategy that the lecturers use to implement the curriculum. They said that a good relationship with their students makes lecturing and presenting the curriculum much easier. The respondents agreed that interaction with students varies according to the individual, the subject being presented and the content of the curriculum. Teaching older students was a challenge for the respondents. Lecturing students of various ages in one classroom was very difficult. In TVET classes the ages of the students can vary from young students e.g., 17-years of age to much older mature students e.g., 40+ years of age. The respondents gave details about teaching students of different ages in one classroom. They said it

influenced their teaching styles. When asked how they communicate with their students beyond the classroom context one respondent reacted by saying:

> My students are sensible and dedicated and we communicate very well. They engage with me without any effort, mostly comfortable. I make use of WhatsApp messages as this is accessible for most of the students. Sometimes they struggle to download documents because they don't have data or connectivity. For those who cannot access the work electronically, I prepare printed notes and activities.

Lecturing during the Covid-19 pandemic, the hard lockdown period was a huge challenge for lecturers as teaching and learning had to continue remotely without preparation in the use of an online learning platform. One of the respondents said:

> During the lockdown my positive attitude and professional preparedness helped me to cope in these difficult times and I could find direction again. Online engagement with students had not resulted in the desired progress and I had to redo all the work after we started with face-to-face training again. Students can relate well if you are in the classroom and see them on an almost daily basis. My experience was that students cannot communicate online, because they lack soft skills, e.g., they do not send proper understandable messages and they also don't understand the messages that they receive. They also could not access the online platform, because they did not know-how. Nobody ever explained to them how to use the online platform of the college.

The six lecturers also stated that they believe that it is important to treat all their students with respect and see them for what they can become as most of their students are from previously disadvantaged communities. This means that they as lecturers need to adjust the use of their language when explaining the curriculum content to the students so that the students can understand the subject content that the lecturer is explaining. One of the respondents said:

> I still prefer face-to-face contact in the classroom when I implement the curriculum. If I explain something in the classroom, I interact with my students by paying

> attention to their body language. For example, if I see some of them frown, I know they struggle to understand the work and then I explain it again or in a different way. Or if I see they smile and nod in agreement, I know that they understood the content.

In summary, the six respondents felt that they were not suitably equipped to implement the curriculum in all its facets because they did not have the necessary training and support that focused on vocational education. They had appropriate academic qualifications, and some had a teaching qualification. They felt that they lacked all the necessary teaching skill dimensions required for college vocational lecturing, i.e., theoretical knowledge, practical skills, and workplace experience. One respondent commented that he sometimes felt that he was blindfolded wandering in the dark struggling to find the light at the end of the tunnel. He knew what should be taught "but did not really understand what they were doing and why they were doing it". The respondents had to find ways and means for themselves to deliver the curriculum in the classroom.

4.4. Theme 3: The curriculum implementation practices of the TVET college lecturers

Theme three focuses on how the college lecturers implemented the curriculum in their classrooms at one TVET college. I focus on how college lecturers gave expression to the curriculum in terms of various dimensions, including classroom management, how they engaged with their students, their administration tasks, and the subject knowledge, teaching styles, pedagogies and assessment dimensions of the curriculum.

The college curriculum is designed to be implemented by combining theoretical knowledge, practical application, and workplace experience. The respondents tend to create a classroom environment that is conducive to teaching and learning and to motivate their students to take ownership of their own learning. They focus on strategies to enhance the effective implementation of the curriculum in their classrooms. Each respondent had to organise their classroom to be comfortable for lecturing. They embellished their classrooms with posters, pictures, and information graphs to create a look and feel for the subject that they lecture.

The respondents' classrooms were equipped with resources and equipment for them to use when they implemented the curriculum. The six respondents' classrooms were each equipped with a data projector and a whiteboard. Two respondents' classrooms were also equipped with a computer built into a podium. These two respondents enjoyed the luxury that they could switch on the computer and data projector and start with their classes. Four respondents' classrooms were not equipped with computers built into a podium and they had to carry their laptops to the classrooms. They explained to me that it was inconvenient and it took time to set up their own computers (laptops) before they could start with their lecturing. They indicated that they would prefer a fully equipped classroom where they could start lecturing immediately when the lecturing hours start. Some classrooms were even equipped with interactive whiteboards. They experienced these whiteboards as white elephants as none of them could use them properly because they did not receive training to use them. They stated that they requested training on the use of these whiteboards, but to date, they had not received any. The respondents mentioned that some lecturers also have their own electronic gadgets like flash drives with recorded material and a speaker, radios, CD players and smartphones that they could use in their classrooms.

The six respondents explained that there were two staff workrooms on the campus that were fully equipped with stand-alone computers and printers. They could thus access the internet and intranet from the workstations in the workrooms. They also had access to computers in the computer laboratories of the campus which there were six. At the campus, there were also other electronic devices like visualisers that they could sign out to use in their classrooms. One of the respondents said that she never signed out any equipment as it was too much effort and additional paperwork; therefore, she only used what was available in her classroom. Another respondent said that she had not yet signed out a visualiser as no one has ever explained to her how to use it. The six respondents agreed that it was not that they did not have equipment in their classrooms to implement the curriculum. The issue was that they could not use the equipment as no one had trained them how to use it. The six respondents noted that they did not use the available resources to implement the curriculum as time was a constraint and they did not want to take the responsibility that something could go wrong with the equipment, because they had not been trained on how to use the available equipment that was installed in the classrooms. One

of the respondents said that she experienced anxiety and stress in the classroom, and she had to deal on her own with her emotions. She said:

> Students complained that they did not have resources or money to come to class and this had a negative effect on me as lecturer. I try my utmost best for my students and want them to be happy and like their studies. Their attitudes and complaints affected me on a personal level. The students expected me to send them the work that I have covered in the class, but they could not access it, because they did not have the resources like a computer, data or connectivity. It made me very anxious, because I was afraid that the students would complain about me to the programme manager. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic and hard lockdown since March 2020, I sent the students their work via WhatsApp messages. Many students complained that their phones were not able to handle all the work that was sent on WhatsApp. I did not know what to do, because initially, that was the only means to get the work to them. I felt so bad for my students. I even recorded the work for them and sent it via a Whatsapp voice-note. I kept all the evidence so that I could prove to management that I have communicated with my students and that I have sent the work to them. I was shocked that my students tend to blame me when they struggled to access their academic work. This made me realise that my students did not take ownership of their learning and expected from me as the lecturer to 'spoon-feed' them.

The respondents agreed that it was expected of them to implement the curriculum and use equipment for which they had not received any prior training or support. This caused them anxiety, stress and frustration and led to ill-health in some instances. The respondents stated that they tended to have a good relationship and connection with their students and management and that they aimed to provide the best they could They aimed to understand students' challenges in order to deal appropriately with their challenges as they arose. The respondents said that they felt that it was imperative to build good relationships with their students because then they had good attitudes and cooperation from their students. They tried to set good examples and acted as role models for their students. The lecturers stated that they tried to create exciting learning environments in their classrooms. They tried to do special activities so that their students would enjoy their learning. The respondents said that it was important to keep the students' attention

inside and outside of the classroom. They explained that they continuously interacted with their students and even more during the Covid-19 pandemic. They said that it was necessary for them to consider student diversity even more as their students tended to have different needs and abilities in the classroom when they implemented the curriculum and it was more severe during the pandemic because many students were afraid of getting the virus. The respondents explained that they did many extra things to maintain students' attention. They interacted deliberatively with their students when implementing the curriculum inside and outside the classroom. Engaging the students in their learning was key. The respondents showed empathy and interest in their students' private lives and lived experiences. They presented themselves by demonstrating and modelling the types of responses that they wanted from students by guided academic and personal support. The respondents monitored responses from the students and provided immediate corrective and constructive feedback when they implemented the curriculum. They described how they tried to reward good behaviour and praised the students. One respondent said she even rewarded the students with chocolates and sweets. She corrected misbehaviour and made sure that students understood there were consequences for disruptive behaviour and when they did not do their homework. One of the respondents noted:

> The students initially had a tendency not to engage. It seemed the students that came from the schools were used to a style where the teacher did all the talking. Part of my approach was to teach them to gain self-confidence and to create opportunities in the classroom where they could engage actively with me and their peers. I provided immediate feedback and I also expected from them to give me feedback on their own work. I had to start with 'ground rules' and explained what I envisioned for their education in the academic year. I engaged with them and taught them how to listen and to respond appropriately. I encouraged the quieter students to take part in class discussions so that the talkative students did not have the chance to take over and dominated the lessons.

The respondents said that it was tough to implement the college curriculum. They experienced challenges with subject content that was old and not relevant anymore. So, they had to find adequate learning material to develop their lesson plans. They experienced a heavy workload of paperwork and administration without sufficient lecturer support. Four of the respondents said

that they did not receive adequate support before they started to implement the curriculum in the classroom. The two respondents that were former teachers and who had their teaching qualification used their teaching experience as schoolteachers to implement the curriculum. They experienced challenges to lecture adult students in an age range from 17 to sometimes older than 40 years which was very different from teaching at a high school. One respondent repeatedly said that she felt that her academic qualifications did not prepare her for the TVET classroom at all. She had to implement the curriculum without any teaching qualification and experience. The one respondent said that he was only appointed as a lecturer at the age of almost sixty years. He was given the curriculum with the semester plan and he had to implement it in the classroom. He felt lost and had to scratch around late at night to make sense of the curriculum before he could start to prepare for the next day at college. He stated firmly that the college should have a standardised induction and orientation programme to train all newly appointed staff prior to the implementation of the curriculum. He also expressed his need for support and mentoring at least for the first six months after his appointment as lecturer at the college. He had to seek support from his peers who were sometimes too busy to assist him. He described the implementation of the college curriculum as a shock to his system. He said he was thrown into the deep end and had to swim. He continued to say that because he had to struggle on his own, he became aware of the college curriculum, subject content assessment guidelines. While he was preparing, he investigated different teaching styles and various pedagogies to use to implement the curriculum in the classroom.

The respondents explained they had to be well prepared for each lesson because the timeframe of the curriculum was limited. They had to lecture the theoretical component in the classroom and afterwards concentrate on explaining and taking the students through the practical application. They also had to practically model the workplace to give the students some understanding of the world of work. Besides all of the before mentioned, they also had to prepare the students for formative assessments. They said that they needed to manage their time effectively during the duration of the lesson which is normally 60 minutes.

They described that they had to prepare a lesson plan on a lesson plan template for each lesson. The college provides this lesson plan template to each lecturer. The lesson plan template guided

them to plan and prepare a lesson by using a figure of a stick man. This figure illustrated the logical content and flow of each lesson. Each lesson started with an introduction which was symbolised by the head of the stick man. This part was a re-cap of the previous day's work. It was followed by the core subject content which was symbolised as the body of the stick man. The conclusion of the lesson symbolised the feet of the stick man and was based on questions and answers to summarise the lesson to ensure that the students understood the part of the work that was covered in the specific lecturing hour. The lecturer needed to guide the students with clear instructions on all learning activities, for example, the content that was to be covered as well as the class activity and homework. The respondents explained that they need to give homework for the students to do at home to make sure that they revise the content that they did in the class. One of the respondents explained:

> Once the students have entered my class, I welcomed them and then we started with the lesson that I have prepared for the day. I asked a few questions to see if they understood the work that did the previous day. When I implement the curriculum in the classroom, I always kept the approach of a 'stick man' in my mind. I always started with the head, the body and the feet. The 'head' was the revision of the previous day's work. The 'body' was the new subject content that I explained and used the authority method of teaching where I spoke and they listen. During the lesson, I asked questions to give them the opportunity to share their views and knowledge. In most instances, I tried to relate the content back to their lived experiences. Then they could understand the work better. The 'feet' was the wrap-up part where I concluded the lesson with more questions and answers. Sometimes I gave them work to do in a group. The approach of the 'stick man' to prepare a lesson was part of an induction and orientation session that I attended when I was appointed as a lecturer two years ago. I followed this approach ever since as it worked for me.

The respondents were inspired to use real-life examples in the classroom when they implemented the curriculum. They strived to teach the students critical problem-solving techniques by asking questions during the lessons that could cement not only the curriculum knowledge but also the soft skills for students when they needed to apply the subject content knowledge once they left the classroom and college. One respondent remarked that "if students got a reason to learn, they

learnt better". The respondents often reminded the students that they were preparing themselves for the world of work. One respondent said:

> An example was that I made use of daily contemporary affairs to get students to understand the subject content, for example for the topic on the importance of verifying information and the consequences of appointing the wrong or incompetent staff. I also used examples such as the issues like the impact of the pandemic, job losses, foreign investors withdrawing the funds surfaced on a daily basis in our country. It was helpful to use these issues as examples in my lessons. I needed to do this so that the lesson could be interesting to the students.

4.5. Lecturers' teaching and learning styles

The respondents explained that they had to develop their own teaching and learning styles as they needed to address diverse groups of college students. They were reminded during their teacher training to strive towards active learning by using different methods in the classroom. They discovered how they needed to incorporate a variety of teaching and learning styles in the classroom when they implemented the curriculum to meet the students' basic learning needs. One of the respondents said that she used the most common learning style where she taught the subject content and the students had to listen and make notes. The respondent explained how she provided the lesson in the classroom, gave homework and the students had to work on their own for the next day. Another respondent said that she loved to let them do group work as a learning activity to involve everyone in the class. They focused on the students' participation by letting them work in groups with their peers. This learning style would reinforce the subject content that was covered in the lesson. They involved the students in the learning process so that they put the responsibility of learning where it belonged - on the students themselves. They tried to allow students to have fun while they learn. They also felt that the students could learn from each other when they worked in groups.

The respondents explained that their teaching methods were diverse and different as they had to focus on the students' prior knowledge and lived experiences. They used various teaching methods such as class participation, demonstration, recitation, and memorisation. They also made use of power-point presentations in the classroom. One respondent stated:

> I made use of a combination of methods. I relied strongly on facilitation skills together with group work where students were divided in small groups and needed to solve problems in the form of questions and answers. However, I supported them, they had to stay content-focused to do the class activities. I liked and believed in interactive participation of my students. I assisted them in their groups and gave feedback so that they can correct their answers before they continued to the next question.

Another respondent said:

> I often revised my teaching styles as many students rely on listening only and I always encouraged them to write and to make summaries. I believed that when they wrote it will help them to consolidate the learning process. I then realised that some students wrote too slow and then they felt behind and could not keep up with the pace of the lesson in the class. Another learning style that I tried was for them to look at you-tube videos on the subject content before I started with the lesson. I thought that could give them a good idea of the subject content and enhanced teaching and learning in the classroom. This also helped them to use more senses in order to remember the subject content. I found that visual materials were more effective to make a lasting impact in the teaching and learning process. Students remembered better when I showed them a video and the subject content in a power-point presentation. Then they could understand their class activities at home and work better.

The respondents said that most classes consisted of thirty or more students which made it difficult to do group work due to noise levels. The respondents found that students were more comfortable when they collaborated with their friends or peers when they did group work. They found learning easier when their friends explained the content. The respondents concluded that

their teaching styles varied almost daily according to the lesson and subject content that they had to lecture. One respondent said that she used online activities during the Covid-19 lockdown period. She explained that the one example was the use of computer games which they could use to practise, e.g., their computer skills. She called it, 'learn while you play'. She also created Google Forms, an online-based assessment tool, to test their knowledge which most of them enjoyed.

The respondents also used collaborative and interactive learning. This approach benefited the students as they also learnt soft skills and life lessons for example to respect their peers' and others' ideas, views and opinions. The respondents explained that they understood their roles as a lecturer and that they became sort of a mentor and coach for their students. They believed that it helped their students to achieve the learning objective(s) when they guided them in class activities while they worked in groups. This approach encouraged them during the learning process to think, pair and share. The respondents realised that sharing knowledge and information was more effective to teaching and learning and they strived to let students work together and used each other's skills and capabilities to achieve a set of learning outcomes. They said that unfortunately, this pedagogical approach was not always possible because students stay far from one another. They explained that the students could only work in groups while they were in the classroom on campus.

The respondents further described how they used different pedagogies to link and interact with various teaching dimensions such as teaching styles, feedback, and assessment at the college when they implemented the curriculum. They said that besides the pedagogical approaches of the lecturer in the classroom, there were elements fundamental to the pedagogies that they used to implement the curriculum, for example how they communicated with the students. With this research having been done during the Covid1-19 pandemic, the respondents explained that during the lockdown period it was very important how they communicated with the students. It was a challenge to get all students onto WhatsApp groups for academic purposes. The respondents had to connect carefully and motivated them to form part of a learning community on a WhatsApp group. They used different strategies and ways to relate to their students to form a lasting connection with the students in their classes.

Coming back to their general implementation of the curriculum during recent years, the respondents explained that they felt that their main task was to implement the curriculum, but that it was also important to be aware of their student's needs. One respondent said that she often asked herself the question, "how do the students in my classroom learn best?". The respondents said that pedagogy was at the centre of their approach to teaching and learning in the classroom when they implemented the curriculum. They explained that the pedagogies that they used most in their classrooms were those that encouraged students to work in pairs or groups. Their approach in the classroom was to get the students to understand that they needed to learn together. They explained to the students that education was a two-way process and that teaching and learning took place at the same time. One respondent said that she felt that she still learnt whenever she lectured the students. The respondents focused on the fact that teaching and learning in the classroom should take place collectively when the students and lecturer worked together to gain knowledge and experience. The respondents said that this approach is doable in the classroom when the lesson was theory-based. It became a challenge for them when they had to do practical tasks with their students. The respondents raised the issue of the simulated classrooms that were too small to accommodate all the students and that the equipment in the simulated classrooms was not adequate to perform the practical application of theoretical knowledge. They said that there was only one simulated classroom for each learning programme and the students could not fit into the space at once. This caused a logistical nightmare as they had to break up the class into two parts. So, one day half of the students could go to the simulated classroom and the next day the remaining half of the students could go to the simulated classroom. The administration of the exercise became too much and the respondents decided to only do the theoretical part in the classroom and showed you-tube videos of the practical application. The one respondent, however, mentioned that while this is not the best she could do, it gave the students some sort of sense of the practices in the workplace. They requested more lesson periods because not all the lessons could fit into the timetable for the week.

The respondents use different and diverse teaching styles to explain the content. They said that the college curriculum is centrally controlled by the Department of Higher Education and

Training and tightly administered by the college's executive staff. One respondent explained that the college has an education and training unit from where compliance to the curriculum was managed. The respondents said that their teaching styles were in line with the resources that were available at the college. They said that they mostly taught their classes based on the traditional method of "talk and chalk". They said they also used PowerPoint presentations to deliver the subject content in the classroom. Two of the respondents said that students preferred this method because both were comfortable with it. One respondent explained that they need to look at the preference of the students as the lecturers must help them to learn to obtain good results in their assessments. They agreed that the most effective method of teaching and learning is the conventional method of "talk and chalk", however, some of them do try to combine traditional didactic teaching with newer techniques and the latest trends in the educational environment such as group discussion and student participation. The respondents explained that they only used some of the resources that were available, for example, the data projector to show the PowerPoint presentations. Some tried to get their students to do group assignments in groups, but this did not work well because the students lived all over the suburbs and could not get together to complete the assignment in their groups. Sometimes the respondents also sent their students to the Open Learning Centre (OLC) for them to do research on a syllabus topic. The OLC was like a library where they could use the computers to do research and to prepare and complete their tasks. One of the respondents said:

> During the lockdown period we had to switch to online teaching and learning on the Learning Management System (LMS) which was the Moodle platform. This was a huge challenge because we had no training prior to the lockdown to work on Moodle. We had to "figure it out" all by ourselves. I contacted my peers in our 'whatsapp' group to assist me, but it was not always possible because we all struggled to familiarise us with the online learning platform.

Another respondent added:

> And once we have figured it out [moodle] all by ourselves, the students could not use it, because it was not free of charge. We had to upload content to comply with the instructions

> from the managers. It did not benefit the students at all, because they could not access the system. The college website indicates that it is a zero-rated website, and that the online platform was free of charge, but that was not the case. The students claimed that they still needed data to access the website and the learning management system. All of us uploaded learning material on the platform only to comply with the given instructions.

The respondents explained that they settled for using WhatsApp for teaching and learning during the lockdown period. They said that even during face-to-face contact time they used their WhatsApp to explain the subject content to students. From the focus group discussions with the respondents, it was clear that the college curriculum content and concepts were implemented by the teacher. It was also clear that even the practical curriculum component was delivered mainly by explaining concepts. One of the respondents said that the time allocated for each subject was sufficient, but it was not used effectively, because there were too many students in her class. It was clear that it was an immense job for the respondents to implement the curriculum and explain the subject content as it seems that they were the planners, the interpreters, and the implementers.

The administration of the curriculum was a daily task of the college lecturers. One of the key aspects of curriculum administration was to keep up and maintain evidence in the form of portfolios. The lecturers had to have a portfolio of assessments which included their general information, subject information, and assessment guidelines. The students had to have a portfolio of evidence that included all the information on their assessments. These portfolios provided evidence of the individuals' (both lecturers and students) engagement in academic and general administration tasks. The respondents stated that they had to have a portfolio of assessment for each subject that they lectured. It was the responsibility of the subject lecturer to ensure that the information in the portfolio was kept up to date. The respondents noted that good planning and preparation were the two main elements that got them through every day at college. They agreed that good lesson planning was essential to the process of teaching and learning in the classroom. The respondents had to provide evidence of everything that they did when they implemented the curriculum, for example, daily lesson plans, student attendance records, assessment results, intervention, and academic support. They said that the administrative tasks pertaining to

academic delivery and the implementation of the curriculum remained the responsibility of the college lecturer.

For the six respondents, the high volume of administrative duties was a huge challenge. The correctness of their administration, provided as evidence in their portfolios, was the biggest compliance measure. Compliance was high on their priority list as they had many audits throughout the year. They mentioned that there were many processes and procedures that they had to adhere to when they had to be fully compliant with the curriculum. They stated that the department and college had a high compliance expectation when the lecturers implemented the college curriculum. The lecturers were thus expected to narrowly conform to departmental curriculum and assessment criteria and expectations. These were prioritised by college management processes.

The respondents explained what happened when they arrived at the college. Each one of them received the curriculum documents in the form of the subject and assessment guidelines or a syllabus for the subjects that they were lecturing as indicated on their timetables. The content of the curriculum documents was subject centred and designed to correspond with a prescribed textbook that was written for the specific subject. This textbook list was provided by the department. They said that the topics in the curriculum touched on a wide variety of fields. One respondent said that she experienced the goal of the curriculum was to give information to students. She said that one can almost call the students "receivers of information". For the respondents, the curriculum was organised to focus on specific information regarding a certain field. They agreed that they had to comply with clearly defined processes, strategies, problem-solving and decision-making techniques, and teamwork. They were frustrated because the subject centred curriculum only focused on knowledge that had to be transferred to the students through the subjects of the learning programme. They regarded themselves as subject experts who had to convey and reflect on the prescribed areas for students' success. The respondents explained that their teaching led to passive learning where the students were expected to imbibe, by rote, the curriculum content. One respondent said the department emphasised that learning material and information had to be handed over to the students. The lecturers felt that the curriculum was very rigidly structured and had to be taught in a very short time span. A

respondent said that the students struggled with subjects such as Mathematical Literacy and Mathematics. She felt frustrated with the timetable that only provided four periods per week for each of the seven subjects. The six respondents agreed that they had to rush to finish the work prior to each assessment. The assessments were scheduled on a document, called the Management Plan. This Management Plan stipulated the entire academic activities with due dates for each term, for example: College starts, classes commence, academic classes – week 1, week 2, week 3, etc., assessment dates, marking and moderation dates, capturing results on the admin system, etc. One respondent said:

> Each thing has a name and a due date on the Management Plan. I used the Management Plan as my Bible to ensure that I am compliant. This whole thing is like a linear model from top to bottom.

The respondents explained that together with the curriculum documents they also received a document called the ICASS (Internal Continuous Assessment) Guidelines which indicated how the curriculum should be implemented and how assessments should be done. This ICASS guideline focused on all the subjects and how they should be delivered, which, for the lecturers was a one-size-fits-all approach. All subjects had to be delivered the same way and all subjects had to do the same number of assessments. One of the respondents added:

> It worked together with the prescribed textbook for each subject. In most cases, the textbooks were written by college lecturers to tailor fit the college curriculums. These textbooks are then screened by the subject committee that consists of members from the department and subject matter experts of colleges. Once the department approved the textbook, it is prescribed by the department.

They furthermore expanded on the ICASS guidelines and explained that they received prior developed templates that they had to use for lesson planning and assessments. The only documents that they may use were quality assured/approved and available on the Quality Management System (QMS) of the college. When they received audits – internally from the college's academic and/or quality managers, or externally from the AG (Auditor-General),

DHET, UMALUSI or the QCTO, they were non-compliant if they did not use the templates that were available on QMS.

At the beginning of each academic period, the lecturers have meetings with lecturers at other colleges in the province. They called these meetings focus group meetings. In these focus group meetings, they planned and developed worksheets that they worked with when they lectured the subject content. These worksheets had to be filed in their portfolios of assessment for evidence. For each topic and subject outcome, they would develop a worksheet that the students had to complete as part of their formative assessments to prepare them for their summative assessments. One respondent explained:

> In our focus group we share the work of the subject. Each college in the Western Cape will develop worksheets for a specific part of the subject content. We share amongst each other. We also share the work of the assessments. Each college set up an assessment or two and we share. This helps a lot because we share the work. The only bad thing about this process that frustrates us is that not all worksheets and assessments are of good quality and standard. Sometimes we have to rework or redevelop the worksheets or assessments. This is a huge frustration.

The respondents noted that there was a lack of administrative support at their campus and if they asked for administrative support, it was not a given. The support staff were mainly busy with capturing information of students after the registration periods at the college. Both formative and summative assessments were a high priority at the college and in the classroom. They had to follow the principles of assessment - validity, authenticity, fairness, relevance, transparency, sufficiency, legitimacy, flexibility and cost-effectiveness – when preparing and conducting assessments. The respondents described the assessment procedure that they followed as firstly, pre-assessment where they planned and prepared the design of the assessment as prescribed by the department's curriculum documents. The assessments were either a practical assessment task, a written test, or an internal examination. They had to set the question papers and memoranda for assessment tasks prior to the assessment dates as determined by the department's management plan for the college. The respondents had to complete an assessment analysis report stating the

types of questions that they asked when they set the question papers. They had to include different types of questions for example multiple-choice, matching items, missing words, true or false, short answers, paragraph type, easy type and long answers. They had to focus on the 'what', but also on 'how', 'why' and 'what if" types of questions as the college expects them to follow Bloom's Taxonomy theory when setting question papers to use the different levels of questioning and answering to assess knowledge, application, and attitudes. All assessments – practical assessment tasks, written tests and internal exams – had to be done under the supervision of the lecturers. The assessments were done during the pre-determined assessment dates. Once the assessments were completed, they had to mark the scripts within three days. Then moderation of at least 5% of the scripts was done. The information had to be captured on a specifically designed template which indicated which scripts were moderated and if the marks had changed. Once this process was completed, they had to capture the results on the administration system of the college. The next step was to give feedback to the students on the assessments that they had done. The students had to sign for their assessments that they had taken note of their results. The respondents had to provide evidence of academic support and interventions after each assessment cycle. The respondents had to complete an assessment results review report that had to reflect in their portfolios of assessment. This document provided evidence that the lecturers analysed their students' results after each assessment. The college lecturers had to complete and sign a document to verify that their assessment results were captured correctly on the system. They mentioned that this was yet another policy received from the department, named "verification of marks". One of the respondents said:

> Assessments were prescribed by the Department of Education and had to have a certain structure and marks total. It also had to cover a specific amount of work and it had to be done at a certain time as prescribed in the department's management plan. I would have preferred smaller, more regular tests whilst covering the content instead of bigger assessments as prescribed to be done almost every month.

4.6. Conclusion

The chapter focused on the professional backgrounds of six lecturers at the college and how they received, interpreted and implemented the college curriculum. The data were presented in three

themes. The first theme focused on the lecturers' background and professional training. Theme two focused on their reception and interpretation of the college curriculum. The six respondents indicated that they lacked the necessary teaching skills that were required for lecturing at a college. They showed a need for training and support prior to implementing the curriculum at the college. The third theme focused on how the lecturers implemented the curriculum. The next chapter presents a discussion of the findings with the view to answering the study's main research question and sub-questions.

Chapter 5: Data analysis and discussion

5.1. Introduction

The main aim of the study is to explore the curriculum implementation experiences of six TVET college lecturers at one TVET college. In this chapter, I discuss the findings based on the data collected during the research and presented in the previous chapter. I apply literature studied and theories presented to answer the main research question and the three sub-questions. I use Elmore's forward and backward mapping lens to make sense of the lecturers' curriculum practices. I also used Matland's policy ambiguity lens to identify the predominant manner in which the lecturers' practices can be characterised. The chapter discusses the different and diverse curriculum implementation practices of six lecturers at one TVET college based on their reception and interpretation of the curriculum and how they positioned themselves to implement the curriculum.

5.2. The impact of the lecturers' background and professional training in positioning them for curriculum implementation at the college

From the interviews and focus group discussions with the respondents, it appears that having the relevant academic qualification and a teaching qualification together with workplace experience assists TVET lecturers to feel better prepared and capacitated to implement the curriculum at the college. They had to implement the curriculum in their classrooms under very difficult circumstances which caused stress, anxiety and even depression in some instances. In addition, they worked with the curriculum policy without adequate training and support from the college prior to the implementation. The stress, anxiety and depression (in some instances) that the six lecturers experienced were, to a large extent, due to the lack of proper pre-implementation and on-going lecturer training, insufficient support, inadequate structures and resources, work overload, student diversity and unpreparedness in terms of the curriculum expectations. Towani (2012), Buthelezi (2015) and Msibi (2016) state that the TVET college sector is a 'black box' with regards to the college lecturer as there has been little research on how their backgrounds position them to teach at a college. What they mean by this is that the college lecturers are not being sufficiently prepared to implement the curriculum requirements. Towani's research shows that very few discussions regarding the college curriculum implementation process took place

with the TVET lecturers she interviewed, which led to poor buy-in by the college lecturers regarding the specific requirements of the TVET curriculum (2012).

All the respondents noted that they felt that they were adequately qualified to implement the curriculum at the college. Four of the respondents said that they found it easier to deliver the requirements of the curriculum as prescribed by the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) as they had either teaching experience, a teaching qualification or both. Two respondents, however, had only completed an academic qualification and had no formal teaching qualification and noted that their workplace experience assisted them to a small extent. A respondent highlighted how challenging it is for a lecturer without any teacher training or teaching experience to understand how to interpret and implement a curriculum as a TVET college lecturer. McEwan (2002: 106) states that effective lecturers must have comprehensive knowledge of their subject content and outcomes, but this should also include knowledge and understanding of how the curriculum is presented. In other words, lecturers require knowledge of how to teach the curriculum knowledge to students and do not only require knowledge of their content area.

Papier (2010) notes that there is no satisfactory formal training for the TVET college lecturer and points out that there is almost no literature on the college lecturer's educational backgrounds and what aspects prepare them to become successful TVET lecturers. She says that the college lecturer has to present a pedagogy that responds both to the TVET students' educational needs and the requirements of the TVET workplace needs. This may create resistance by the college lecturer's and cause emotional disorders, for example, stress and anxiety. She says the college lecturer is obligated to cover two worlds – work and education and needs to embrace both worlds, which causes tension between trying to be an industry expert and an education expert. She further adds that in actual fact they may even be isolated or disconnected from both worlds – the industrial workplace and the traditional school (Papier, 2011: 106).

Elmore's theory on backward and forward mapping is helpful in understanding policy implementation at a TVET college (Elmore, 1979-1980). The six respondents do not have any input into the formulation of the college curriculum policy. Policies are imposed on them in a

top-down approach and this can be described as a forward mapping approach. In the case of forward mapping the absence of the lecturer's input into policy as the policy implementers, i.e., the lecturers not having a say in the policy-making or formulation of policy, is highlighted. In addition, the inability of the policy to consider the implementation dynamics at ground level within the college context resulted in creating a gap for lecturers' own interpretation and hence the diverse and various implementation practices (Elmore, 1979-1980). College lecturers are the implementers of the curriculum and it is the backward mapping lens that through a spotlight on this dimension. They plan and prepare to implement the curriculum with the learning outcomes in their minds. Yet, the very conditions under which they have to implement the curriculum at ground level work against successful implementation. The lack of training, mentoring, resources, and support for curriculum implementation mitigates against adequate teaching and learning processes. Such a situation in the college context is a far cry from the policy visions embedded in the forward mapping approaches of the policy. An enormous implementation gap therefore exists between the policy visions for curriculum and the conditions in the college that fail to support the lecturers in their curriculum implementation work (Elmore, 1980).

Matland (1995) encapsulates top-down and bottom-up models of policy implementation, arguing that top-downers has a strong desire to present prescriptive advice, while bottom-uppers put a stronger emphasis on explaining what factors caused challenges in reaching the pre-set goals. Matland's model ranks policy by two axes – conflict (referring to a potential conflict between goals) and ambiguity (conflict in how the goals are met). Looking through the theoretical lens of Matland's Ambiguity Conflict Model (1995), the analysis is made against the background of national curriculum policy that has been imposed (in a top-down, forward mapping approach) on the implementers who must implement the policy, I place six respondents in the political implementation quadrant of Matland's quadrant. This quadrant refers to a paradigm where there is clear goal setting and where resistance comes in because of the diversity and contradiction of the goal setting. These types of policies are recognised by a low level of ambiguity and a high level of conflict. This implementation model is portrayed as one that is not automatically pursued and implemented due to a high level of conflict - high conflict between pre-set goals in the policy document which the implementers do not always understand and/or agree with - and a low level of ambiguity - low conflict in how the pre-set goals are met by the implementers as they

just need to follow the policy (curriculum) documents. Along with the objectives of the policy that are diverse and contradictory in nature and the lack of sufficient resource utilisation, policy success is not a given (Carl, 1995). Along with this, two respondents do not automatically connect their professional backgrounds with their curriculum implementation practices in their classrooms. They display a position of conflict either between goals or between means of meeting these goals. This may be a result of these two respondents not having a formal teaching qualification. I categorise the two respondents in the symbolic implementation mode which is depicted by an inherent vagueness that depicts the respondents' curriculum implementation practices. (Matland, 1995: 168). The symbolic implementation mode refers to a paradigm with noticeable high levels of both ambiguity and conflict when policy is implemented. Conflict occurs when lecturers have different agendas for different desired outcomes. The degree of conflict means that top-down political influence is also present.

According to Spillane, Reiser and Reimer (2002), implementation of education policy as a top-down forward mapping approach is difficult because of the relationship between the lecturers' sense-making (interpretation) thereof in relation to their implementation (classroom practices). They look at three aspects when policy is implemented, namely the lecturers' sense-making (e.g., their beliefs and experiences), the importance of the situation or context (e.g., at the college and in the classroom) and the role of government (DHET). How the lecturer makes sense of the curriculum prior to implementation is complex as it draws on their knowledge base of understanding, beliefs, and attitudes and not only on decoding policy messages (Spillane, Reiser & Reimer, 2002: 391). Many lecturers (implementing agents) are new at the college and tend to struggle with the interpretation and implementation of the curriculum because so many different sectors structure the work practices (college lecturers), innovations (the college) and the implementation process. Fullan (2007) states that the implementation of education policy is a dynamic process with many factors that are involved and intertwined. These factors include characteristics of change like need, clarity, complexity, and usefulness, as well as local characteristics like the district, community, principal and teacher and external factors like the government, department and other agencies.

5.3. The reception and interpretation of the curriculum of the six respondents in response to curriculum expectations

College lecturers come from diverse training and professional backgrounds. Some enter the college sector from having worked in industry, while others have academic or professional backgrounds. Many lecturers find the shift or change that is required to reposition themselves as college lecturers difficult which in turn causes stress, anxiety and even depression in some instances. Despite coming to the college with unique skills sets from their different training and professional backgrounds, they have to find a way into their lecturing in response to complex policy demands and various implementation challenges which include a lack of curriculum guidance, resources, and training opportunities. In this theme, I will discuss how the college lecturers re-position themselves to implement the curriculum.

The six respondents indicated that they all experienced challenges when they arrived at the college due to a lack of available training programmes for them as TVET college lecturers. Training on how to interpret and implement the curriculum in most college environments is sporadic and even absent at times. At the college where the research took place, the only training opportunity that they had was the induction and orientation training programme that was offered to all new staff members for two days. The lecturers interviewed felt that this training was not sufficient to give them a clear understanding of how to interpret and implement the college curriculum policy successfully. Uncertainty and fear of the unknown caused anxiety, stress and in some cases depression for the lecturers due to their uncertainty as to what exactly they needed to do. They felt unprepared and incompetent to meet the expectations of the curriculum which has its own challenges and shortfalls due to the workload of each employee at the college. They do not have the time to mentor another lecturer, due to the heavy workload they have at the TVET college. Most lecturers have a timetable of twenty-five lecturing hours per week and all other admin tasks like marking, moderation, intervention, and recordkeeping that also need to be done which are all part of implementing the curriculum (Van der Bijl 2015: 2).

One of the biggest challenges for the lecturers is the constant change in a sector that struggles to position itself between the many role-players in education and industry. The presence of too many innovations mandated superficially on a fragmented basis provides many challenges for lecturers in the implementation process of the curriculum. Therefore, staff development initiatives are an important component for the lecturers in the TVET college sector. Research has demonstrated that sustained interaction and staff development are crucial as they allow "lecturers to familiarise themselves with new methods and materials to reflect and work on problems of implementation, both individually and collectively" (Papier & McGrath, 2008). Resources, for example, computers, data projectors, visualisers, printers, internet (wi-fi) are available at the college, however, due to the lack of training and time constraints lecturers do not always know how to use these resources or have the time to figure out how the resources work. This lack of information acts as a further frustration for the lecturers which leads to low work morale and self-esteem.

In the classroom as the micro-implementation environment, according to the participants interviewed, the lecturers use their own creative and innovative ways to implement the curriculum using their existing knowledge and experience. Looking through the lens of Elmore, the curriculum implementation policy is a top-down approach. The college lecturers do not have input into the formation of the college curriculum. However, the respondents do take ownership of curriculum implementation in their classrooms where they use different resources like data projectors, printers, visualisers, etc. to support their pedagogies. The pedagogical aspect of their lecturing is not written into the policy and for the lecturers interviewed, this left them feeling overwhelmed as they had to organise how they were going to present the curriculum knowledge to the students in their classes. The lecturers all stated that they were eager to enact policy well but found it difficult to know which resources were available to best support their lectures. In addition, the lecturers all stated that having enough time to prepare their lectures and complete their administrative tasks was a significant challenge.

The six respondents at the college all have different qualifications and skills sets and each of them experienced their own challenges. In the complex process of receiving the policy from the top-down, lecturers must develop their own teaching styles and pedagogies in the classroom to

implement the curriculum. They received the curriculum in a top-down, forward mapping approach, and have to make sense of it to effectively implement it in the classroom. The outcome is that diverse methods and practices are used as each lecturer implements the curriculum in a different way in their classrooms. This, in turn, can impact negatively on the TVET lecturers' sense of well-being because when they fail they feel disappointed which further hinders their productivity and causes frustration and discouragement.

According to Matland's Ambiguity Model (1980), the six respondents' curriculum implementation practices are placed in the experimental implemental model due to a high level of ambiguity and vagueness experienced by the lecturers. The central principle that drives this implementation model is the contextual conditions within which the policy must be implemented together with the active involvement of the role players and the resources available. In the case of the research being reported on and looking through the lens of Elmore's policy approach which is top-down, the lecturers feel disempowered, because the top-down approach is a challenge for those on the ground who have to implement it. To implement the policy as required, the lecturers interviewed stated that they sometimes respond to the policy requirements by just doing what is necessary to ensure that all the necessary requirements are met. In other words, they make sure that they have ticked all the boxes required of them from an administrative point of view.

In addition, the data showed that many of the procedures required at the college are very structured and therefore leave no space for self-thinking. Therefore, the lecturers tend to do what needs to be done to implement the curriculum successfully. In other words, the lecturers do not resist the curriculum, they do what they can to implement the curriculum effectively. They use their own backgrounds and qualifications to interpret the curriculum and then they use the resources that are available to implement the curriculum as best they can in their classrooms. They respond to curriculum expectations by providing technical education and training, which contribute to a society's skills needs, and enables students to become employable or to be self-employed (Leoes, 2009: 29).

5.4. How the lecturers implement the curriculum policies and their teaching and pedagogical practices

The college's expectations of the lecturer in the implementation process of the curriculum are immense. The lecturers need to ensure that the curriculum is correctly interpreted, planned and implemented. Very little consultation took place. Each one has his or her own unique way of dealing with the students. The respondents recognised how each student is different and described how they use technology to support the students' understanding of the subject content. In addition, the lecturers also discussed that they needed to focus on clear constructive communication with their students so that the students can learn that their own behaviour impacts their academic success. The lecturers tried their best to perform under the different circumstances at the college. They used their professional preparedness to stay calm and confident in what is expected from them.

In response to the Covid-19 pandemic, course teaching was moved to online teaching and learning. The lecturers expressed their concern that online learning may become permanent in the new normal after the pandemic. It was clear that during the Covid-19 lockdown period the levels of inequality in education increased, leading to the view that the pandemic increased 'digital inequality' (Colombo, 2020) in our country. This referred to the lack of accessibility to data and devices experienced by most students in the country which impeded learning for most students. The impact of the Covid-19 pandemic and the challenges that the lockdown period brought forth is enormous in the TVET college sector. The college lecturer plays a big role in the lives of students and many lecturers have a good understanding of the students' daily struggles and limitations. Changes associated with the fourth industrial revolution (see Fataar, 2020) have forced the college lecturer to become skilled in the use of technology as they realise that this is the future.

Looking through the lens of Elmore's (1979-1980) top-down approach, it is clear that the lecturers receive the curriculum policy from the department and they have to implement it. Understanding processes that the lecturers follow to implement the curriculum in their

classrooms is based for me on a backward mapping approach. I argue that the curriculum implementers, in this case, the six respondents, had to attach their own interpretation to what they had to do to implement the curriculum. And, given these interpretations, they each developed their own strategy to implement the curriculum in the classroom.

The lecturers used their own professional preparedness to enhance their teaching and pedagogical practices in the classroom to ensure effective implementation of the curriculum. Looking at Matland's model in relation to their curriculum development practices of a TVET lecturer, the respondents can be placed in the experimental implementation quadrant because of the high level of ambiguity in the policy that has given free rein to their own interpretation of how to implement the curriculum. Matland (2010) calls this approach the experimental implementation model because it demonstrates a high level of ambiguity and a low level of conflict. In other words, the lecturers did not resist the curriculum but they implemented it in highly variable and uncertain ways. The understanding that drives this implementation model is the contextual conditions in which the policy is implemented together with the active involvement of the lecturers and the resources that are available play an important role in their curriculum practices (Matland, 2010: 155). The lecturers use their professional preparedness to equip their students with the required skills for the world of work, as well as focusing on the necessary skills, attitudes and values of the curriculum during the teaching and learning practices in the classroom. In this way, the lecturers supported the students to acquire skills and attitudes that they would need to face challenges and problems in the world of work. The implementation of policies, together with the outcomes demonstrated, thus depends on the role of each lecturer's implementation styles. Each lecturer is actively engaged with his or her own strategies in the implementation of the curriculum. Further, the contextual conditions show how each lecturer implements and manages the curriculum in context. In other words, it shows how each of the six respondents receive, understand, experience and implement the curriculum within the parameters of the policy document.

5.5. Conclusion

The analysis of the six respondents' curriculum implementation practices at one college in Cape Town in the Western Cape was discussed under the three different previous themes. What this analysis has highlighted is that there is a gap in the policy between the (policy) makers and the (policy) implementers. The gap is emphasised by the different approaches of the lecturers and their policy implementation practices. Policymakers that formulate the curriculum predict a particular way that the policy will be implemented, but the policy implementers may receive, understand and implement the curriculum policy differently.

This point is theoretically strengthened when viewed through the lens of Elmore (1979-1980) and Matland (1995), the two theoretical models that were used in this analysis. The analysis has demonstrated that the curriculum policy implementation can be classified via Elmore's (1979-1980) forward mapping approach. During the data analysis of the three themes, it is clear that the college lecturers' approach to curriculum implementation is one of self-interpretation due to the policy that was given to them with the expectation that they were able to implement with a variation that related to their own sense-making of the curriculum. The viewpoints and capacity of the lecturers concerning the curriculum implementation were not taken into account. The second point to note is that the TVET lecturers' own interpretation of the policy is a result of ambiguity and vagueness that occurs within their implementation practices. In addition, TVET college lecturers have to interact with various dimensions, e.g. administration of the curriculum, curriculum reception, knowledge of subject content, pedagogy and assessment to implement the curriculum successfully. There are many expectations of lecturers despite them not being trained with regards to these requirements and concepts in the vocational classroom prior to curriculum implementation. Consequently, there exists a policy/practice gap that contributes to the diverse teaching and learning practices in the classroom when the lecturers implement the curriculum.

The analysis indicates that the curriculum implementation practices of six TVET college lecturers in the vocational classroom were not homogeneous. The distribution of the lecturers' curriculum implementation, read via Matland's (1995) Ambiguity Conflict Model, indicate

differences and similarities found in the lecturers' implementation practices. Below is a table that illustrated where each lecturer falls in this mode, for each theme.

Theme	Administrative	Political	Experimental	Symbolic
1	None	6 lecturers	None	2 lecturers
2	None	None	6 lecturers	None
3	None	None	6 lecturers	None

It is important to note that the experimentation implementation model can be associated with all of the lecturers' implementation practices. To sum up, using the data that I have collected and provided, I can answer the main question of my research study as to how and on what basis lecturers at a technical and vocational education and training college implement the curriculum. The six respondents' professional backgrounds and identities impact in various ways on their curriculum implementation practices and how they manage teaching and learning in their classrooms. They perceive and make sense of the curriculum prescriptions of their subjects in various ways. They use different teaching styles and pedagogical practices in their classrooms to implement the curriculum.

Each of the six lecturers dealt with challenges – emotional (stress, anxiety and depression in some cases) and physical (administration, subject content, assessment) - in different ways which impacted their lives. Their lived experiences impacted how they encountered these challenges when implementing the curriculum. They found different ways in dealing with their emotional and physical challenges in order to manage their time to plan and prepare, how to connect to their students and how to prevent negativity and frustration. The lecturers also had diverse ways in how they dealt with these challenges. They had, despite the challenges, developed their own teaching and pedagogical strategies to implement the curriculum effectively. Therefore, it is possible to say that some of the lecturers met the expectations of the curriculum and others deviated from what was expected of them. This is the reason for my assertion that the curriculum implementation practices of six lecturers at one TVET college are diverse and different.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

Having lectured at a TVET college for some time and having experienced challenges in transitioning from being a former schoolteacher to lecturing at a college and lately being an academic manager, it has been a concern to me for some time how lecturers experience their implementation of the college curriculum. More specifically it appeared that the transition from being a teacher at a school to becoming a lecturer at a technical and vocational college is not as straightforward as might be assumed. Furthermore, some lecturers do not have formal teaching training or qualifications or prior teaching experience which makes the transition even more difficult. It was expected of them to transition fairly easily into lecturing adults at a college level, because of the assumption that they, being primarily experienced schoolteachers, already have the necessary professional backgrounds which includes the necessary training and teaching skills.

My personal experience was that this transition is generally fraught with uncertainty and at times confusion. This concern drove me to propose a study to investigate how college lecturers experienced challenges when implementing the curriculum at the college. My main research question was how and on what basis lecturers at a technical and vocational education and training college implement the curriculum. The sub-questions for the study were: how the lecturers' background and professional training and preparedness positioned them for lecturing at the TVET college; how the TVET college conditions influenced the lecturers' curriculum implementation, and how the lecturers developed practices and strategies for curriculum implementation.

The two theoretical lenses that I used to analyse the policy gap between the policy as presented to the college and policy as implemented by the lecturers were the works of Elmore (1980) and Matland (1995). Elmore's (1980) approach to policy implementation, known as forward and backward mapping, enabled me to research the curriculum implementation practices of the college lecturers with respect to the gap between policymaking and lecturer practices. Matland's (1995) Ambiguity Conflict Model is a further development of Elmore's implementation approach. Matland's model allowed me to place the nature and extent of the lecturers' practices

within the four quadrants in his model. Firstly, I placed six respondents' curriculum interpretation approaches in the political quadrant which is recognised by a low level of ambiguity and a high level of conflict and secondly, I placed the six respondents' curriculum implementation practices in the experimental quadrant which is recognised by a high level of conflict and a high level of ambiguity.

The qualitative-interpretive research method as discussed in chapter three laid the foundation for my study. Located in the qualitative research paradigm, I used semi-structured interviews with 6 purposively sampled lecturers to collect the data for the study. Based on the data, I described the experiences of the respondents and how those impacted their training and pedagogical practices in their classrooms. I acknowledged their subjective experiences at the college and how these impacted their daily lives and classroom pedagogies. This methodological approach highlighted how diverse and different the six respondents' curriculum implementation practices were given the fact that the six of them used the same policy documents. The research method and paradigm combined assisted me to present three themes in response to my main research question, namely, how and on what basis did lecturers at a technical and vocational education and training college implement the curriculum?

The first theme related to the college lecturers' professional backgrounds and their preparedness to position themselves for lecturing at the college. It appeared that those who had a relevant academic qualification and a teaching qualification together with workplace experience felt better prepared to implement the curriculum at the college. The lecturers played many roles in the implementation of the college curriculum, such as that of planners, interpreters, and implementers. They should be trained, supported, and consulted via meetings, workshops, conferences, refresher courses, symposiums, etc. These interventions might bring an all-inclusive understanding and interpretation of the college curriculum - thereby bridging the policy gap - which may lead to better delivery in the classroom. The six respondents' professional backgrounds were adequate to teach at the college, but they lacked periodical specialised training, refresher courses and continuous in-service training aimed at professional development, e.g., short courses in facilitation, assessment, moderation; blended learning approaches; computer skills; use of technology in the classroom, and online learning. Training and support of

the respondents would ease the transition from schoolteacher to a college lecturer and enable them to better receive and interpret the curriculum.

The second theme of the study was about how the lecturers' reception and interpretation of the curriculum in relation to college and curriculum expectations were influenced by the conditions at the college. The curriculum implementation practices of the respondents were different and diverse due to the impact of different factors, including the content of the curriculum, time constraints, available resources, and college infrastructure, as well as the diversity of the college student population (including age differences, differing backgrounds and diverse cognitive levels) and many administrative duties. To top it all, the unrealistic expectations of the college management place an inordinate demand on the lecturers' time and space to focus on teaching, which makes their curriculum experiences stressful and anxiety-inducing. The lecturers did not question or argue the curriculum as such, they placed a high premium on the delivery of the subject content, as well as assessments, to ensure the success of their students. They used their different professional backgrounds and skills sets to position themselves to teach effectively at the college - finding ways to create their own 'road maps' to implement the curriculum successfully in their classrooms.

Theme three concentrated on how the lecturers went about developing teaching practices and pedagogical strategies for curriculum implementation. The lecturers utilised their professional preparedness to encounter college and curriculum expectations to ensure that they implement the curriculum effectively in their classrooms. They ensured that they communicated regularly and clearly with their students to ensure the students' academic performance and success. They used a different model of academic delivery during the Covid 19 pandemic - which entailed a blended learning approach of online teaching and social media (WhatsApp messages). The lecturers developed their technological skills as part of their teaching practices as this has been necessitated by the impact of the 4th Industrial Revolution.

The lecturers used their professionalism and experience to stay calm and confident to meet all the expectations of the college and the curriculum. The Covid-19 pandemic in the 2020/2021 academic year added another dimension, bringing its own challenges to the TVET college sector

and having an enormous effect which the lecturers also had to absorb. The need to make use of technology to continue to support their students' learning during the pandemic forced the lecturers to become more skilled in the use of technology to be able to teach remotely. This was another new challenge for the TVET sector. The research showed how, both during and before the pandemic, the college lecturers actively engaged in adapting their teaching and pedagogical strategies to implement the curriculum.

In conclusion, it is difficult to draw a consistent line through the curriculum implementation practices of the six college lecturers at one TVET college. The analysis of the three themes, however, showed that despite the lecturers having adequate professional qualifications to teach at the college, they lacked continuous training and personal development. What the research highlighted was that the interpretation and implementation of the curriculum were easier for the lecturers who had an academic qualification, teaching qualification and workplace experience as opposed to those lecturers who only had adequate qualifications. In other words, teaching and workplace experience play a significant role in preparing and supporting lecturers in the implementation practices of the TVET curriculum. My research study has shown that the six college lecturers at the TVET college had different and diverse curriculum implementation practices. In answering my main research question of how and on what basis lecturers at a technical and vocational education and training college implemented the curriculum, the data collected pointed out that the respondents' professional backgrounds were adequate to teach at a college. They, however, lacked adequate training and support prior to implementing the curriculum. The college context for their curriculum practices was overrun by resource constraints and continuous atmosphere of tinkering caused by policy prescriptions received from the DHET which rendered the college and unstable and strained environment for teaching. A culture of compliance presented few incentives for lecturers to innovate and experiment with their teaching styles and strategies, And the lack of work-based teaching meant that the curriculum was delivered in an overly theoretical manner, something which runs contrary to expectations for effective vocational training.

My recommendation for further research is to explore the nature of the training and support of TVET college lecturers prior to the implementation of the curriculum in the classroom. Further

research needs to be conducted regarding what kind of training and support would enhance the successful implementation of the curriculum by TVET college lecturers. Research can also be focused on the role of college management in facilitating curriculum implementation.

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Addendums

INTERVIEW GUIDE

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL AND PROFESSIONAL INFORMATION

Please answer each item in full, or choose the applicable option:

Sub-question
1: What are the biographical, training and professional background information of the respondents at the one TVET college?

Gender
Male ___ Female ___

Home Language
English _____; Afrikaans _____; Other_____

Country of origin
_____

Age Group
21-30 _____
31-40 _____
41-50 _____
51-60 _____
61-70 _____

Industry experience
Yes _____; No _____

Highest Academic Qualification
Certificate __
Diploma __
Degree __
Honours Degree __
Master's Degree __
Doctorate __

Do you have a Teacher's Qualification?
Yes_____; No__ __

Teaching experience
0-3 years __ 4-6 years__
7-10 years __ 11-15 years __
16-20 years __ 21+ years __

SECTION B: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

SUB-QUESTION 1: Tell me more about your training and professional backgrounds in relation to curriculum implementation at the college

NR	QUESTION	RESPONSE OF PARTICIPANT
1.1	What is your contribution in terms of promoting teaching and learning at your campus with reference to implementing the curriculum? Take into consideration your own professional background and identity as a TVET college lecturer.	
1.2	Do you receive any support – academically and personally (emotional well-being) from your seniors (management) in order to implement the curriculum effectively?	
1.3	Is there performance management, which is done within the college in relation to the academic staff members and how is it implemented?	

SUB-QUESTION 2: Tell me more about your own experiences and challenges that you have when you have to implement the curriculum in the classroom

NR	QUESTION	RESPONSE OF PARTICIPANT
2.1	Were you trained before the implementation of the NCV programmes curriculum that you are lecturing?	
2.2	If yes, what was the extent (e.g. what did it entail- induction, orientation, information sharing) of the training and was the training beneficial?	
2.3	If no, what is the college doing to ensure that you are able to lecture the given NCV subject(s)?	

SUB-QUESTION 3: How do you receive and interpret the curriculum to make sense of what exactly you have to do with the content in regards to the expectations?

NR	QUESTION	RESPONSE OF PARTICIPANT
1.1	What type of challenges do you experience at a TVET college?	
1.2	Do you have any recommendations to address these challenges at the institution where you teach?	
1.3	What do you identify as strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum?	

SUB-QUESTION 4: How do you interact with various dimensions (administration of curriculum, curriculum reception, knowledge of the subject, pedagogy and assessment) to position yourself to teach at the college?

NR	QUESTION	RESPONSE OF PARTICIPANT
1.1	Are you using supporting documents like a lesson plan, Assessment Schedule, year plan as a work pacer? And how do these documents support your lecturing, or why are you not making use of them?	
1.2	Are the lecturers having positive or negative attitudes towards the curriculum? What makes you arrive at that conclusion?	
1.3	Is the relationship between you and your colleagues conducive to the effective implementation of the curriculum? Please elaborate.	

SECTION C: OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS -

NR	QUESTION	RESPONSE OF PARTICIPANT
C1	Does the TVET college policy framework govern and steer the TVET college sector in South Africa?	
C2	Do the Programmes that TVET colleges offer and address the skills needs of the economy in South Africa?	
C3	Do you agree/disagree that the managers/principals at the TVET colleges in South Africa have the necessary skills set to manage the institution?	
C4	Do you think the funding models are sufficient to support access and articulation to post-school education and training in the TVET sector?	
C5	Are the lecturers entering the TVET college sector suitably qualified to facilitate teaching and learning and to implement the curriculum?	

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION TOPICS – PROBING QUESTIONS

1. **How does your professional background and lecturer identity (your personal experiences) impact on your curriculum implementation and teaching and learning at the college?**

FOR EXAMPLE:

- How do you receive and make sense of the curriculum prescriptions of the subjects that you teach?
- How do you deliver the subject content – which resources do you use, how do you work with the subject content in the classroom?
- What teaching styles do you use in the classroom?
- How do you experience the students, how do you engage and work with them?
- How do you do Assessments – having to cover specific amounts of work to be ready for an assessment on a given time as per the year plan?
- How do you deal with Admin challenges – having to capture marks on ITS in time, verification, etc?

What impact do all of these prescriptions by ICASS guidelines (policy) has on us as lecturers?

2. **What challenges have you encountered in implementing the curriculum? (in a positive or negative way – your own lived experiences)? And how have these challenges impacted on your teaching and learning - (in a positive or negative way – your own lived experiences)?**

FOR EXAMPLE:

- E.g. practical things like social impact, burn-out, psychological impact, physical impact, has it hindered productivity, zest for teaching?

3. **What strategies (what did you do?) have you developed in effectively implementing the curriculum?**

FOR EXAMPLE:

- How do you understand and perceive the curriculum?
- What did you do to deliver subject content, meeting Learning Outcomes, structured deadlines, autonomy (professional preparedness), classroom management

4. **How effectively has your own professional preparedness enhanced or enriched your overall lived experienced as a TVET lecturer?**

FOR EXAMPLE:

- E.g. pedagogies that you learned in your teacher training, working from home like online learning, trying to connect with students, etc.

UNIVERSITEIT
STELLENBOSCH
UNIVERSITY

APPROVED WITH STIPULATIONS
REC Humanities New Application Form

9 August 2018

Project number: EPS-2018-7733

Project title: LECTURERS' LIVED EXPERIENCES) OF THEIR LECTURING AT A TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (TVET) COLLEGE.

Dear Mrs Monice Brand

Your REC Humanities New Application Form submitted on 6 July 2018 was reviewed by the REC: Humanities and approved with stipulations.

Ethics approval period:

Protocol approval date (Humanities)	Protocol expiration date (Humanities)
9 August 2018	8 August 2021

REC STIPULATIONS:

The researcher may proceed with the envisaged research provided that the following stipulations, relevant to the approval of the project are adhered to or addressed:

The researcher notes that she will interview lecturers at a TVET college in the Northern Suburbs of Cape Town. The researcher is reminded that permission may be required from the college in order to interview their employees during work hours, or in their capacity as staff members at the institution. The researcher must undertake to seek such permission from the organisation and to attach proof of permission to her application form once available. [ACTION REQUIRED]

HOW TO RESPOND:

Some of these stipulations may require your response. Where a response is required, you must respond to the REC within **six**

(6) months of the date of this letter. Your approval would expire automatically should your response not be received by the REC within 6 months of the date of this letter.

Your response (and all changes requested) must be done directly on the electronic application form on the Infonetica system: https://applyethics.sun.ac.za/Project/Index/10049

Where revision to supporting documents is required, please ensure that you replace all outdated documents on your application form with the revised versions. Please respond to the stipulations in a separate cover letter titled "**Response to REC stipulations**" and attach the cover letter in the section **Additional Information and Documents**.

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: Humanities, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.

Please use your SU project number (7733) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

FOR CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee: Humanities before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary)

Included Documents:

Document Type	File Name	Date Version
Research Protocol/Proposal	RESEARCH PROPOSAL-apply for ethical clearance-prof Fataar	06/07/2018 1
Informed Consent Form	Written Consent – Participants	06/07/2018 1
Data collection tool	QUESTIONNAIRE AND SURVEY GUIDE-RESEARCH PROJECTPROF FATAAR	06/07/2018 1
Data collection tool	INTERVIEW GUIDE-RESEARCH PROJECT-PROF FATAAR	06/07/2018 1

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za.

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number: REC-050411-032. The Research Ethics Committee: Humanities complies with the SA National Health Act No.61 2003 as it pertains to health research. In addition, this committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research established by the Declaration of Helsinki (2013) and the Department of Health Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes (2nd Ed.) 2015. *Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.*

Investigator Responsibilities

Protection of Human Research Participants

Some of the general responsibilities investigators have when conducting research involving human participants are listed below:

1. Conducting the Research. You are responsible for making sure that the research is conducted according to the REC approved research protocol. You are also responsible for the actions of all your co-investigators and research staff involved with this research. You must also ensure that the research is conducted within the standards of your field of research.

2.Participant Enrolment. You may not recruit or enrol participants prior to the REC approval date or after the expiration date of REC approval. All recruitment materials for any form of media must be approved by the REC prior to their use.

3.Informed Consent. You are responsible for obtaining and documenting effective informed consent using **only** the REC-approved consent documents/process, and for ensuring that no human participants are involved in research prior to obtaining their informed consent. Please give all participants copies of the signed informed consent documents. Keep the originals in your secured research files for at least five (5) years.

4.Continuing Review. The REC must review and approve all REC-approved research proposals at intervals appropriate to the degree of risk but not less than once per year. There is **no grace period.** Prior to the date on which the REC approval of the research expires, **it is your responsibility to submit the progress report in a timely fashion to ensure a lapse in REC approval does not occur.** If REC approval of your research lapses, you must stop new participant enrolment, and contact the REC office immediately.

5.Amendments and Changes. If you wish to amend or change any aspect of your research (such as research design, interventions or procedures, participant population, informed consent document, instruments, surveys or recruiting material), you must submit the amendment to the REC for review using the current
Amendment Form. You **may not initiate** any amendments or changes to your research without first obtaining written REC review and approval. The **only exception** is when it is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants and the REC should be immediately informed of this necessity.

6.Adverse or Unanticipated Events. Any serious adverse events, participant complaints, and all unanticipated problems that involve risks to participants or others, as well as any research-related injuries, occurring at this institution or at other performance sites must be reported to Malene Fouche within **five (5) days** of discovery of the incident. You must also report any instances of serious or continuing problems, or non-compliance with the RECs requirements for protecting human research participants. The only exception to this policy is that the death of a research participant must be reported in accordance with the Stellenbosch University Research Ethics Committee Standard Operating Procedures. All reportable events should be submitted to the REC using the Serious Adverse Event Report Form.

7.Research Record Keeping. You must keep the following research-related records, at a minimum, in a secure location for a minimum of five years: the REC approved research proposal and all amendments; all informed consent documents; recruiting materials; continuing review reports; adverse or unanticipated events; and all correspondence from the REC

8.Provision of Counselling or emergency support. When a dedicated counsellor or psychologist provides support to a participant without prior REC review and approval, to the extent permitted by law, such activities will not be recognised as research nor the data used in support of research. Such cases should be indicated in the progress report or final report.

9.Final reports. When you have completed (no further participant enrolment, interactions or interventions) or stopped work on your research, you must submit a Final Report to the REC.

10.On-Site Evaluations, Inspections, or Audits. If you are notified that your research will be reviewed or audited by the sponsor or any other external agency or any internal group, you must inform the REC immediately of the impending audit/evaluation.

Western Cape Government
Education

Directorate: Research

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Private Bag x9114, Cape Town, 8000
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REFERENCE: 20190903-8751
ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Mrs Monice Brand
52 Kendal Road
Eversdal
Durbanville
7550

Dear Mrs Monice Brand

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: EXPLORING THE CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION EXPERIENCES OF LECTURERS AT A TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (TVET) COLLEGE IN THE WESTERN CAPE

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **06 September 2019 till 20 June 2020**
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?

8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.
Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard

Directorate: Research
DATE: 04 September 2019